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ABSTRACT

This book presents 17 papers from a 1982 national multidisciplinary conference on services for behaviorally disordered adolescents. The following papers are included: "Programming for Youth in Secondary Schools and the Community," (W. Van Til); "Who's Crazy? II" (C. Michael Nelson); "Correlates of Successful Adaptive Behavior: Comparative Studies with Regular and Exceptional Adolescent Populations" (Suzanne E. Cortez); "Sexual Behavior Disorders in Adolescents" (William D. Erickson); "A Conceptual Framework for Providing Services to Seriously Emotionally Disturbed Children and Adolescents" (Frank H. Stetson and John C. Rhead); "Interagency Intervention: A Case Study" (Jane West-Stern); "The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center: Multiphasic Academic/Therapeutic Program Model" (Michael Tomalesky and Robert Jackson); "A Program for Prevocational Instruction for Adolescents with Severe Behavioral Disorders" (Robert Gable); "Multidisciplinary Approach to Rural Service Delivery: A Transactional Perspective" (Norman A. Buktenica and Paul L. Beare); "Meeting the Needs of Youth from a Corrections Viewpoint" (Osa D. Coffey); "Issues and Challenges Facing Special Education Teachers in a Correctional Setting" (Bruce I. Wolford); "Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens: Even More Important Today" (Herbert L. Foster); "A Personal Adjustment Curriculum for Secondary Behaviorally Disordered Students" (Cora J. Houchens); "Developing a Social Skills Curriculum for Mildly Handicapped Adolescents and Young Adults: Some Problems and Approaches" (Jan Sheldon et al.); "Student Decision Making: Improving the School for All Students" (Steven Brion-Meisels et al.); "The Importance of Play and Games in the Middle School Program for Emotionally Disturbed Young Adolescents" (Gayle Mindes and Kathleen Torina Murphy); "Generic Affective Competencies: A Model for Teaching Socially and Emotionally Disturbed Adolescents" (Paul Pattavina). (CL)

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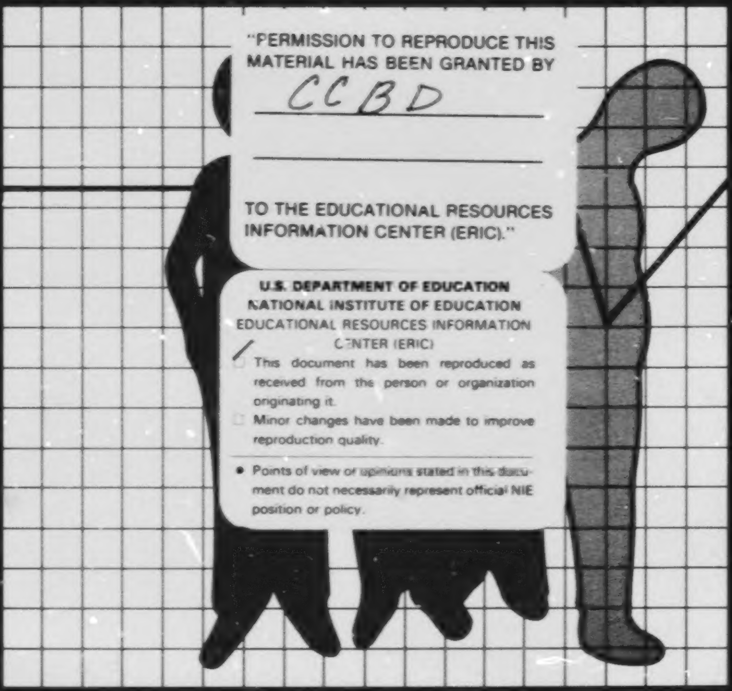

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The Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders is a national professional organization for those interested in the education and well-being of behaviorally disordered individuals. The Council functions to develop lines of communication and interaction among professionals, disciplines, and organizations; to promote adequate programs for recruitment, training, and consultation; to encourage research and development; to support legislation for services to these children. Toward this end, the Council publishes a quarterly journal, *Behavioral Disorders*, and sponsors national conferences in relation to these interests. An organization of some 4,500 members, the Council maintains central offices at 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.

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Preface

Since 1904, when G. Stanley Hall published *Adolescence: Its Psychology and Its Relation to Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion and Education,* the turbulance, ambivalence, dangers, and the possibilities of adolescence have been echoed in nearly every discussion of this stage of life. According to Keniston (1975), it is inaccurate to credit Hall with "discovering" adolescence since descriptions of this age group have existed for centuries. However, Hall's concept has become enshrined in our cultural view of human development. While controversy does exist over the definitions and the nature of adolescence, it is generally accepted as an inherent part of growth. Over the past 80 years this acceptance has been accompanied by increasing professional and lay efforts to understand the behavior and needs of youth. It is not surprising that a primary focus of these efforts has been within the schools where developing programs that meet young people's needs is a critical priority.

The importance of providing educational programs that match adolescents' needs is not a recent issue. The National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE) published a yearbook 30 years ago that focused on adopting secondary school programs to meet the needs of youth. In the opening paragraph, William Brink wrote:

> Although significant changes have been made in the scope and character of secondary schools in the last half century, there is still a wide spread feeling shared by a considerable segment of the profession and the lay public, and supported by considerable evidence, that further changes and improvements are needed. (1953)

Commenting on juvenile delinquency, Brink noted that the most salutary development was an emerging emphasis upon positive and constructive attributes toward delinquent youth and methods of treatment. In the following chapter Low (1953) asserted that teachers are obligated to provide the largest possible measure of opportunity for all students to develop their individual interests, talents, and feelings of personal satisfaction. These statements appeared five years after another NSSE publication, *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, in which the yearbook committee stated:

> It could be argued that the real marvel of our time is that so many youth get on successfully with their developmental tasks and that they learn to meet, survive, and surmount these complications without resorting to delinquency. (1948, p. 8)

While reading these statements I was struck by how contemporary they sound. Common key themes in the literature on secondary schools and youth for the past 40 years and longer include: (a) Change has occurred, but significant improvements are still needed; (b) public schools have a responsibility to meet the needs of all youth; (c) the needs of adolescents are complex; and (d) changing societal conditions complicate the developmental tasks of adolescents. With little effort, a curious reader will discover a fifth theme — a near preoccupation, which vacilates between fascination and exasperation, with the needs and problems of youth.

Throughout this century an array of agencies and organizations have emerged, varying from recreational to correctional, in attempts to respond to the needs of youth. Educators, psychologists, physicians, social workers, clergy, and other professionals as well as lay groups have separately been developing and providing programs to assist adolescents in accomplishing their developmental tasks and preparing for adult life. While the various groups have shared a common goal, their philosophical perspectives range from "taming the beast" to "let them do their thing." Unfortunately, there has been minimal collaboration among the service providers to share knowledge, exchange ideas, or to promote a cooperative and comprehensive service system. Where the programs have been concerned with adolescents identified as behaviorally disordered or emotionally disturbed, this has been particularly true.

One recent change, and a vivid manifestation of the above themes, is P.L. 94-142 and the attending challenges of implementing school programs which meet the needs of behaviorally disordered adolescents. Newly expanded and clearly defined responsibilities require programming in schools which was historically viewed as the obligation of other public and private agencies such as juvenile courts, mental health centers, hospitals, private therapists, or other "treatment" agencies. Now perhaps more than ever the time has come and is ripe for youth service organizations to collaborate and join in a cooperative venture to build a communication network and comprehensive service system, especially for our most troubled youth.

This book is one product of an effort to bring together a wide variety of professional and lay groups serving behaviorally disordered adolescents. In September 1982, a national multidisciplinary conference was held in Minneapolis, Minnesota, which included over 230 presentations on programming and interventions for adolescents. The papers in this book represent a small sample of the variety of presentations at the conference and illustrate a positive continuation of the key themes noted above. Change is occurring, but improvements are still needed. Schools' obligation to serve all youth is now a legally defined responsibility. Complex adolescent needs and societal conditions still challenge our best efforts. Certainly, the task of understanding adolescents and meeting their needs is both fascinating and exasperating. It is my hope that this book will contribute to a continuing effort to reinforce collaboration among youth service organizations and improve programs for all adolescents.

I would like to acknowledge and thank those people whose encouragement and support have made this book possible. Please note the 40 individuals listed who served as reviewers of the papers submitted for this volume. Their time and thoughtful critiques have helped to assure a high standard of quality in the accepted papers. A special thanks to Carol Ann Kardash and Rob Rutherford for their invaluable assistance and commitment to the completion of this project. I would further like to thank the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders for endorsing this book and providing the resources for it to be published. Finally, I want to acknowlege and thank the more than 100 people who helped to organize and facilitate the national conference, PROGRAMMING FOR THE DEVELOPMENTAL NEEDS OF ADOLESCENTS WITH BEHAVIOR DISORDERS, the origin of this book.

Sheldon Braaten

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Programming for Youth in Secondary Schools and the Community

William Van Til

It isn't my topic that makes me feel humble, for as of 1983 I will have been trying to encourage educators and citizens to program for youth in school and community for a full half century. What does make me feel humble is my recognition that you who are working with behavioral disorders and with emotionally disturbed young people are working in one of the most difficult, the least appreciated, and the most poorly financed fields in all of education. What makes me feel humble is thinking back over my half century in education to my first 2 years as an educator when, completely unprepared, I tried to work with emotionally disturbed youth.

My autobiography which will be published in 1983 by Lake Lure Press under the title *My Way of Looking at It* tells of my coming out of college in 1933 at the height of the Great Depression and finding a job in a reform school after a period of unemployment. To quote:

> New York State Training School for Boys was a facility for teenage delinquent boys which had been open only a few months when I arrived. The school had no books, no paper, no pencils, no anything—except delinquents. The library contained only passed-off junk. The delinquents lived in cottages, low-lying buildings with dormitory facilities and a recreation room. After line-up on weekdays, they marched out in work gangs for a half day of work in the field and in the buildings, and for another half day of school in the Administration Building. On weekends the staff supervised and patrolled their church attendance, recreation, and even sleeping hours.
>
> The superintendent was a politician who usually remained invisible to both staff and delinquents. The assistant superintendent, the day-by-day boss, was a tough S.O.B. who administered corporal punishment to boys who tried to "breeze" (escape) or otherwise rebel. The director of the education program was cultured, kind, and ineffectual.
>
> Later I described my first day in a National Education Association pamphlet on discipline. "When, in a barren classroom, I first faced teenage delinquents, I felt like a character in a Kafka nightmare. I saw before me boys who were sullen or mocking or hostile. As to discipline, the choice presented me seemed stark. Either I must put into these delinquents the fear of the master — namely me — through every scrap

William Van Til, *My Way of Looking at It*, Lake Lure Press, RR 32, Box 316, Terre Haute, Indiana 47803.
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> of authority I could muster, including a coercive curriculum, or I must jointly with them develop a curriculum somehow related to their lives. I gambled on the latter course."
>
> Somehow I lived through those first two weeks. I got the boys to talk about how it happened that they had been sent to Warwick. Amazingly enough, all seemed to be innocent of the crimes for which they had been sentenced; they freely "snowed" the new teacher in hope of his support when they came before The Committee for consideration of possible probation. They talked about their lives in Harlem and Bedford Stuyvesant, their brothers' stays in jails, their favorite fighters, their experiences on the streets, and what they hated most about school. Boasting and lies predominated. Yet I came to know them as individuals.
>
> After an eternity, I was granted a weekend pass, a twice-a-month privilege. I went from local library to local library in Corona and Flushing and loaded up with library books on the elementary level that had anything to do with what the boys had talked about — crime, boxing, adventures, etc. Later I learned that such library exploitation was unethical. But at the time I was too young and desperate to have ethics. My sister supplied me with paper, pencils, and materials from her school, courtesy of the New York City school system; the statutes of limitations on her crimes have no doubt long ago expired. The local butcher gave me sheets of wrapping paper for artwork by the boys. My girlfriend got me a scrapbook for my "project," biographies of contemporary celebrities to be composed by my delinquents.
>
> Bored by the surrounding nothingness, some of the boys used some of the accessions, including free materials wangled from a variety of companies and groups. Some read simple books; few wrote anything at all. Some tried remedial work. One boy spent most of his school half day drawing a frieze of boats, from Phoenician galleys to ocean liners. Some just sat and glowered or picked fights....
>
> Somehow I survived that year at Warwick and even scored some small triumphs. For instance, I never physically struck a boy — which is just as well, for many of these veterans of street fighting could have easily thrashed or knifed me (in the school shops boys secretly made knives of any available metal). Nor was I ever struck or cut by a boy. Many of them came to recognize that I wanted to help them and most at least recognized that I intended them no harm. When I left Warwick in June of 1934 for a summer of study at Columbia and an attempt to write at my family bungalow, the school newspaper bid me adieu sadly through a long story and a sentimental editorial.

After a year I went to a very different school, the experimental school of Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. My autobiography, *My Way of Looking at It*, reports on my experience.

> My limited reputation as a reform school teacher had preceded me. Consequently, the faculty also included in my teaching schedule a strange assignment. Based on their experiences of the first years, they identified a dozen boys of the 10th and 11th grades who were having problems which ranged from apathy to insubordination. They included a charming personable youth whose ideas sounded totalitarian to me, a rebellious basketball player, a lad who had already had some scrapes with the law, a runaway from home, several unmotivated young men,

and some who, though not retarded, were obviously below the usual intellectual level of the student body. Ergo, reasoned the faculty, we will see what Lindquist's young phenom from the reform school will do with this heady mix; since the new teacher had a background in English and the social studies, we'll ask him to teach both fields to our problem boys.

In those days, I was a primitive progressive. I had gotten the message that you should begin with the expressed interests of the learners. Operationally, I knew little else. So when my problem dozen gathered in the round, heavily mirrored, and comfortably couched reception room for our daily two hours together, I simply did what came naturally. Recalling the early reform school hours, I had each boy introduce himself at length. My authoritarian boy particularly enjoyed being the center of the stage as he explained why an elite would inherit the earth. The boys also listened with interest to my own autobiography, including some colorful tales out of Warwick. After our introductions, I pointed out that I hadn't asked to teach them and they hadn't asked for me as their teacher, but we were stuck with each other and might as well make the best of it. Then I asked them what they wanted to learn about. My question was put flatly; it was without elaboration or qualification.

There was a long silence. Then my young authoritarian signaled through body language that he was taking over and that the group should follow his lead. "We can sutdy whatever we want, Mr. Van Til, right?"

"Right."

"Then I know what we'd like to learn about, Mr. Van Til. We'd like to learn about crooks. All about crooks. Is that okay with you, Mr. Van Til, for us to learn all about crooks?"

The basketball star added, "Yeah, Mr. Van Til, for some of these guys it would be like vocational education."

I was at a crossroads. I could either stand pat or scuttle by saying, "Well, you know what I meant. This program is primarily social studies plus language arts skills so you can choose to study about Greece or Rome or the Middle Ages or a period in American history. But naturally not about crooks." Instead I chose to remain with my primitive progressive approach. As Robert Frost put it, "Two roads diverged in a yellow wood and I — I took the one less traveled by and that has made all the difference."

So we studied about crooks. We went to the police station for information. We borrowed a doctoral dissertation on crime from the library and the boys found out what you and I already know. that multiple problem areas existed in Columbus as in other cities and that if the maps in the dissertation were superimposed on each other the various social problems would overlap. High crime areas were also areas of high infant mortality, venereal disease, and poor health and housing conditions. But this generalization was new to the sophomores and juniors in my class. We piled into cars to visit high crime areas, then planned a picture-taking campaign in the slums. We developed our photographs and made maps and charts to display in hall cases for the edification of the rest of the student body.

When the exhibits went up, the boys got some satisfying feedback from the rest of the school. I began to congratulate myself as I ticked off

> the social science concepts, the scientific generalizations, the art experiences, and the substantial reading and writing of the past few weeks. I contemplated the study that was emerging, an examination of what we could do about the conditions that we observed. (The crime study led into a study of housing, including the public vs. private housing controversy of the era. The housing study led into the study of race when one of our guides proved to be a highly educated black. "You know why he's so smart? Because he's got white blood. Isn't that how they get smart, Mr. Van Til?" "Let's look it up," I said.)
>
> But pride goeth before a fall. One morning I was sitting in my office opposite one of the exhibit cases. Unaware of my presence, one of my boys was giving a lecture to a friend about the relationship of social problems to social class, as manifested by our charts. I was proud of him. Impressed, his auditor said, "You work on this with that new teacher?" "Yes." "Is he any good?" "Good?", said my boy contemptuously, "Good? He doesn't even have a book!"

I could have been so much more effective if I could have had the insights offered by a fine conference program. How much better prepared I would have ce programbeen if I had understood the varied types of behavioral disorders, the possible causes of emotional disturbances, the models and instruments for assessing students and evaluating programs, the possible agency interventions, the research in your field! I envy you your opportunities to pick and choose throughout the varied programs of important conferences so that you can be still more effective professionals.

I appear not as a specialist on emotionally disturbed young people but as one who will try to briefly summarize developments in meeting personal and social and value-related needs of "normal" adolescents through school and community programs. As always in education, one must begin with culture.

You will recall that when you have traveled through the Appalachians or Rocky Mountains, you reached high points called watersheds from which the water flowed on one side toward an ocean and on the other side toward eventual arrival in the Gulf of Mexico. The historian Henry Steele Commager has pointed out that at the beginning of the 20th century America crossed a watershed in history. Education was also at a watershed at the beginning of the 20th century. On the side called past, education relied heavily on academic instruction through the separate subjects. On the side called future, education quested for relevant and meaningful learning by children and youth through subjects, interdisciplinary study, and action-learning. On the side called past was education designed simply for college preparation and college entrance. On the side of the future was an historic 1918 report called the Cardinal Principles of Education.

The Cardinal Principles Report of 1918 recommended that the content of secondary education be based on the present and prospective lives of young people, a heretical idea from the point of view of those who saw schools as simply designed for college entrance. To the Commission, education existed to deal with seven Cardinal Principles:

1. Health
2. Command of Fundamental Processes
3. Worthy Home Membership
4. Vocation
5. Civic Education
6. Worthy Use of Leisure
7. Ethical Character

Despite the lapse of time since the Cardinal Principles Report, the central idea that the overall objectives of a school must relate to the present and prospective lives of young people, rather than to traditional subject matter categories, shines through. Since then educators have debated the question of the best ways of looking at school curriculum.

Three ways of looking at secondary education have emerged. To some educators, the curriculum should be based on the needs, interests, and wants of the individual learner. To a second school of thought, the curriculum should be based on the demands of society and the imperative social realities of the times. To a third group, the curriculum should clarify value alternatives and educate for a humane way of life.

I was fortunate enough to become acquainted with the leaders of these three schools of thought: William Heard Kilpatrick, sponsor of emphasis on needs of learners; George S. Counts, who emphasized social realities; and Boyd H. Bode, who stressed values.

William Heard Kilpatrick was the philosopher of education most identified with emphasis on the needs and interests of the learner. When I knew him he was a white-haired man who skillfully individualized his teaching of large classes. He became famous with his project method, based on student experiences, which involved the learner in problem-solving marked by analysis, judgment, discussion, and evaluation. In his writing there recurs emphasis on pupil involvement and student-centered learning through purposeful activity and intrinsic motivation. To Kilpatrick, the enemies of learning were extrinsic motivation, memorization, rote learning, and meaningless formal instruction. "We learn what we live," he reminded us.

Just as William Heard Kilpatrick symbolized a philosophy of education that stressed the needs and interests of learners, George S. Counts symbolized a philosophy which stressed social realities. Counts was charismatic, a hawk-eyed, highly rhetorical social reformer. He was acutely aware of the social problems of the decade in which he reached the apex of his influence, the 1930s. He called for a curriculum which would grapple with the social realities on the international and domestic scenes. He urged the school to throw its potential strength into a struggle to build a new society. For instance, he electrified the Progressive Education Association with an address entitled, *Dare the School Build a New Social Order.*

The views of philosopher of education Boyd H. Bode serve as a useful point of departure for demonstrating that some conceive values as central in curriculum making. Bode was humorous and relaxed, a man who conducted his classes through Socratic dialogues. He believed that the central task of education was to clarify the nature of the democratic way of life and its competitor, the authoritarian way of life.

This conflict in curriculum philosophy continues among those who call for an education based on the needs and interests of children and youth, those who call for acquainting youth with social realities, and those who believe education should help young people clarify and arrive at values. For instance, in the 1960s and 1970s a major criticism of the American school curriculum stemmed from those who called for a program based on the needs and interests of young people. They regarded the standard curriculum as sterile, lifeless, coercive and indifferent to the actual lives of children and youth.

Their books reported the failure of American education under such titles as *The Way It Spozed to Be, How Children Fail, Compulsory Mis-Education, The Under-Achieving School, The Vanishing Adolescent, The High School Revolutionaries, Growing Up Absurd, The Naked Children, The Angel Inside Went*

Sour. The smell of death even pervades some of their titles: *Our Children Are Dying, Murder in the Classroom, Death at an Early Age, School Is Dead, How to Survive in Your Native Land*. The authors were members of a group variously described as the romantic, sentimental, compassionate critics. A loosely organized alliance of kin spirits, the compassionate critics who were writing during the 1960s and 1970s included John Holt, Herbert Kohl, James Herndon, George Dennison, Jonathan Kozol, and Nat Hentoff. The books of John Holt are the most widely read of the writings by the compassionate critics.

During the middle 1970s a different group of reformers called for heavy emphasis on community participation by students and more work experiences for young people. They emphasized social needs and social realities. They pointed out that education could not be encompassed in a schoolhouse.

During the 1970s there was extensive experimentation in relating education to the surrounding community including the development of schools without walls, such as the wellknown Philadelphia experiment which was frequently emulated in other metropolitan areas. In such programs, students went to school through museums, art galleries, various workshops, factories, and offices where people made their living. Experimentation included public service by young people as they accompanied adults who were carrying out their responsibilities. Alternation took place of attendance at school and work on jobs under the supervision of school personnel. In such programs, often described as action learning, the student worked within the community with the guidance, support, and education of trained professionals.

Reform reports of the 1970s which stressed community participation and work experience by students included *Youth: Transition to Adulthood*, a report by the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee under the chairmanship of James S. Coleman; *The Reform of Secondary Education: A Report to the Public and the Profession* under the chairmanship of B. Frank Brown; the National Panel on High Schools and Adolescent Education appointed by the U.S. Department of Education. Such high school reform proposals encompased a variety of problems and differed from each other. However, in general the reports were critical of contemporary high schools as too large, age-segregated, overly separated, quasi-custodial environments for adolescents. Their sponsors believed that such schools do not sufficiently provide youth a transition to maturity and the adult world of work and community participation. In general, such reports supported smaller and more diverse schools which were age-integrated and community-related. They called for both academic and action learning. They proposed to supplement schooling by alternative paths to maturity by way of business, industry work organizations, social involvement opportunities, and community education centers.

Still a third approach that developed in the 1970s was values clarification. Sponsors of the approach such as Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe, and Howard Kirschenbaum said in *Values Clarification* that everyone of us meets life situations which call for thought, opinions, decisions, and action. Every decision and course of action is based on our consciously or unconsciously held attitudes, beliefs, and values. They pointed out that students, like adults, face such problems and decisions, for we live in a confusing world where we must make choices but are frequently not clear about our own values. They suggested that typical areas of confusion included politics, religion, work, leisure time, school, love, sex, family, friends, money, health, race, war-peace, authority, personal tastes, etc. They proposed a values clarification approach to help young people answer some of their questions and build their own systems of values. They contended that they did not aim to instill any particular set of values but that they hoped to help students to think their way through and to arrive at valuing processes.

Throughout my life I've asked myself which of these three ways of looking at education was right — the people who emphasized needs, those who stressed social realities, or those who emphasized values. I can only conclude that each had a part of the truth. There's an East Indian fable of the blind man and the elephant that applies. You may remember it. One blind man encountering the elephant patted the side and pronounced it a wall. A second one grabbed the tail and pronounced it a rope. A third grabbed the trunk and concluded that the elephant was a snake. But actually it was a totality that can only be described as an elephant. Similarly I believe that each of the schools of thought I have described has only part of the truth.

I never met John Dewey. He was before my time. But I read his writings and such books as *Democracy in Education*, and *Experience in Education* gave me clues. Dewey taught me that we have to draw on each of these three ways of looking at education. I learned the importance of both/and rather than either/or.

Fred T. Wilhelms, as experienced educational organization administrator, once told me that educators cannot bear more than one thing in mind simultaneously. I think this is true. What Fred was pointing out was that in the 1920s we developed a child-centered school. In the 1930s we were concerned about depression, the international scene, and a society-centered school. In the 1940s values were paramount because of World War II. In the 1950s the emphasis shifted to social demands for more science and mathematics because of Sputnik. In the turbulent 1960s the needs of young people were most important because of the black and youth revolutions. In the 1970s opinion was divided as I have just indicated.

So I hope that in the 1980s people will bear more than one thing in mind simultaneously. Let us hope that curriculum builders will take into account the needs and interests of young people, the crucial social realities of the time, and the need to develop humane values. With these in mind they might then create more helpful subject matter and interdisciplinary content.

Today in the 1980s the struggle still goes on between those who look back to the past and those who look to the future. Some who look back to the 19th century side of the watershed still see schools as places for traditional education where students memorize material that has little relationship to life and where they give back through rote recitation. Students in such schools — and there are many — are not treated as individuals. Motivation is ignored. Life begins at 3:30.

But other educators call for 20th century schools that provide education related to life today and in the future and that reconcile needs, social realities, and values. For instance they call for education about war and peace, and about the interrelated problems of pollution, population, and energy. They ask for study of economic problems in government and how to be a good consumer. Their students consider conflicting world views and the ways of varied ethnic groups. They have experiences in the arts and they learn to use their leisure. They learn about themselves and their personal development and about family life and good health. Students in modern schools learn about vocations through work experience and about the community through participation in community activities.

Some may say they will not learn to communicate in such modern schools. Not so — they will read, write, and talk extensively about such matters as those I have just named. Some say students in modern schools will know little history. Again this is nonsense. They will relate study of the past to the present and the future and will learn history.

I sympathize with and support such 20th century efforts as these because I believe in education being centered on real human problems. I have made my case for a problem-centered education in four books I have written in the past eight years, *Education: A Beginning, Curriculum: Quest for Relevance, Secondary Education: School and Community,* all published by Houghton Mifflin, and in a yearbook, *Issues in Secondary Education,* published by the National Society for the Study of Education. I have made the case for a problem-centered education in my autobiography, *My Way of Looking at It.*

The struggle between the 19th and the 20th centuries still goes on. You and I are inevitably a part of it. I urge you to encourage efforts to help youth through programs which meet the needs and interests of young people, that throw light on the social realities of our times, and that help youth to arrive at and act upon humane values. Such programs hold promise for better education for children and youth through school and society.

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Who's Crazy? II

C. Michael Nelson

Who's Crazy? originated when I was president of the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders. I gave it as the dinner address at the 1981 Arizona State University Conference on Severe Behavior Disorders of Children and Youth. After that, I took *Who's Crazy?* to Austin, Texas, Louisville, Kentucky, and New York City. Overall it had a good run, but in dusting it off, I found it no longer fit the changes that have occurred in me or in the world. So it has been changed in part. Since it no longer is the same presentation, I thought it fitting to informally assign it a new title, which is *Who's Crazy? II.*

I also think it is fitting to present *Who's Crazy? II* at a conference on the problems of adolescents with behavioral disorders. Adolescence has been characterized as a developmental period involving numerous transitions, passages, and turbulence. Whether this is true for any given adolescent, I can't say, but as the father of two such persons, I can testify it is true for this parent. My children can run me through a gammit of emotions and lead me to doubt myself in fundamental ways. And they are relatively "normal." Having worked with behaviorally disordered adolescents, I know how they can drain a person of his/her personal resources and leave him/her totally confused about what to do or even who she/he is.

From a scientific point of view, the logical place to begin is to operationally define *crazy*. I intentionally chose this term over the jargon preferred in our profession, such as psychotic, emotionally disturbed, or behaviorally disordered, because it more accurately conveys my impression that such labels are readily applied to anything or anybody we don't understand or with whom we disagree. The judgment that someone or something is crazy is relative and situational. It depends upon who is doing the judging, the standards against which they are judging, and the limits of the context in which the judgment is applied. Therefore, I'm going to opt out of defining craziness at the outset, and instead allow you to use your informal, private frame of reference to define this term. As I go on, perhaps we'll develop some concensus about what this means. I certainly hope to let you knowing what *I* think craziness is.

So, who's crazy? The way I see it, there are several candidates for the title. You might think of this as a multiple choice test. It is (a) children and youth —our traditional choice; (b) ourselves — by which I mean teachers, teacher trainers, and other professional caretakers; (c) The "system" — which includes schools, agencies of state and federal government, as well as professional organizations; (d) society itself; or (e) all of the above. I'd like to examine each of these alternatives briefly.

First, let's take children. The bad kid business depends on the existence of bad kids. And there appears to be no shortage. The supply of crazy children is

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in a constant state of renewal bcause of such factors as an increasing birth rate, new drugs, widely varying standards of behavior, and the like. As William Rhodes (1967, 1970) has pointed out, it is convenient to claim that craziness resides in youth because they're the weakest, the least able to resist being labeled and intervened upon. The question is, should we label and intervene? The logical answer to this is, it's our job. And a logical rejoinder is, *should* this be our job?

As a person working in a mental health related field, I see that our client population represents persons who appear to exist on the fringes of some social order. In fact, everyone undoubtedly has experienced being on the fringe of some group. It seems reasonable to propose that adolescents, in the process of searching out a place in the world, live on the fringes of many social groups. Their testing perhaps represents their way of learning about the social order, of gaining entry to some groups and rejecting others. I think this testing never stops, and by that single criterion, we are *all* adolescents.

In any case, if children are our targets, the next question is, what are we supposed to do with them? There seems to be a fair consensus that we should change them. If that is true, what should we change them into? Should they be like everybody else, or different? If different, how do we keep them from being called crazy any more? Instead of changing them, should we teach them to cope with us, and with the systems that daily impinge upon them? Or, should we teach them to change us? Perhaps the best we can do is simply reach them, and provide what support we can during their formative years.

My point is, the decision that children own the craziness we're speaking of doesn't solve our problem. Instead, it opens a Pandora's Box of problems and conflict: What should we do with them, where should we send them, how do we know whether we succeeded or failed with them? Our field is characterized by diversity regarding these issues. My belief is that some children are in fact crazy. Some are *driven* crazy, and others, perhaps most, are made to look crazy because it takes the pressure off us.

Moving on to the next candidate, let's examine the agents of change—ourselves. To explore the question of personal craziness, I prepared a little self-test, which I called *Are You Crazy?* Actually, since this is the second edition of the test, I suppose I should call it *Are You Crazy II?* Please answer covertly. Clear your desks, and keep your eyes on your own mind.

The first question is, are you happy? Are you fulfilled by your personal life, or by your career? Do you like the people with whom you live? Do they like you? Do you do things that depress you? Things you don't understand? How do you react or feel when people fail to do things you expect them to do? Do you feel constantly angry or guilty towards someone? It has been my experience that the supreme test of our humanity lies in our ability to form mutually satisfactory relationships with other persons. Ranier Maria Rilke phrased this challenge most beautifully:

> For one human being to love another, that is perhaps the most difficult of all our tasks, the ultimate, the last test and proof, the work for which all other work is but preparation.

I don't know about you, but in this area I still have much to learn. And I doubt that I ever will get it exactly right. Let's face it. We are support systems for one another. Yet we frequently seem to insist that someone we love be wrong in order for us to appear right. We take our frustrations, our vexations, our anger and guilt over daily events out on those we care for most. Well, *I* do anyway.

But let's move on. The next set of questions relates more to you as a

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professional. Who's interest are you serving in the classroom? Your principal's? The parents? Yours? Or your students? Do you have objectives for you pupi's? Who developed them? Are they appropriate? How do you know? Do you evaluate and revise your objectives frequently? Do you teach, or do you present information? Do you manage the classroom environment, or do you just control behavior? How do you respond to your best pupil? To your worst? Do you think IEPs are meaningless paperwork? Do you teach from them? Do you talk about your students as people, or do you use terminology which establishes them as "different" and yourself as a holy cow?

Now, here are some for supervisors and teacher trainers. Do you work in your office? Do our subordinates come to you, or do you go to them? Do they enjoy your company? Your professional advice? Do you care if your teachers or trainees are competent? Are you afraid they might appear more competent than you? Are you more concerned with having no problems to deal with? With getting published? Do you use the same techniques to train teachers that you want them to use in the classroom? Do you train them to use techniques which have been empirically validated, or those which establish you as an esoteric specialist? Do you know what your teachers do in the classroom? Do you care?

Okay. Close your test booklet, and make sure your name is on the upper right hand corner. There is no standardized criterion for this test, but I'm sure we'd all come off as a little bit crazy, if we answered these questions honestly. It's all right to be crazy; in fact, in our business, it even may be necessary. Rhodes (1980) advocated that we celebrate deviance. Unfortunately, we're too often defensive about our craziness, and fail to see how our needs interfere with serving our children. It's easier to blame the pupils than to admit our own shortcomings.

At this point, I would like to label myself. I consider myself a teacher. I am identified with the profession of teaching. You can tell teachers by the way they always want to show you something. Teachers are show-offs. In the field of special education, those who choose, or simply fall into, teaching pupils in trouble, want to show off their abilities to help other people. We all think we have talent there. The truth is, some of us do and some of us *think* we do. As teachers, we can't afford to overlook the obvious fact that in the social realm, we always will be learners first and teachers second. This is because the social order, and all of its ramifications, changes constantly. So the only role that makes sense is that of a person who is open to new knowledge and new information.

Let me turn now to the *system*. In this category, I'd just like to point out some practices that are, in my opinion, crazy. First, let's examine special education as it typically is practiced in the schools. Special education services are designed to be available only to children who have been given an official label, and generally these services are confined to special places, away from the mainstream. This separation has created two distinct worlds, what Reynolds and Birch (1977) call the "Two Box Theory." Special educators use special methods, talk in a special language, and fail to communicate with regular educators, who live in that other separate box. Public Law 94-142 notwithstanding, we're failing to create the kind of regular and special education mix that ensures successful mainstreaming. But why should we? If building administrators don't know our special technology or speak our special language, they can't hold us accountable. Of course, neither can they hold accountable regular educators who can't work with, or refuse to work with, our children, because they also lack our special skills. At one time, I facetiously suggested a slogan for CCBD: "Bad kids are good business." And so they are. As long as we reinforce regular educators for throwing in the towel, for labeling and excluding special children, we'll have reasonably secure jobs doing just what we've done for years, which is to keep the bad pupils under control and out of the way.

Much of what we do in the schools is dictated by policies within the federal and state government, policies which never cease to amaze me. For instance, despite the mandate of P.L. 94-142 to move special education toward the regular classroom, despite the existence of a powerful and accountable technology of teaching, and despite the evidence that a noncategorical training-based service delivery system can work, we continue to perpetuate the practice of funding special education on the basis of diagnosing and labeling populations of children. Practitioners are compelled to identify, test, and label a certain number of children in order to receive financial programmatic support. This numbers game exists because special education is defined in terms of serving a fixed percentage of the school population. The bureaucratic response to finding increased numbers of children requiring special help is to "harden the categories"; in other words, to make definitions of special populations more restrictive, and thereby exclude more children from the services they need. For example, the government will fund special education for no more than 12% of the school population. The definition of the *severely emotionally disturbed* is restricted to no more than 2% by federal law. This means that many children are deprived of services until their problems reach a level of intensity sufficient to warrant inclusion in this 2%.

Furthermore, access to special services is based on information gathered from instruments, the reliability and validity of which have been questioned for several years (e.g., Arter & Jenkins, 1979; Ysseldyke, 1973). Funds are available *only* in proportion to the number of handicapped children identified by these instruments.

As if this weren't enough, the federal government complicates the numbers game by periodically recounting handicapped subpopulations and adjusting its program and training support priorities on the basis of which group currently is getting more or less than its rightful share of the available goodies. Over the past several years, these priorities have shifted from mild to severely to multiply handicapped, from the emotionally disturbed to the learning disabled, and back to the emotionally disturbed. This keeps all of us on our toes, trying not to get buried in the shifting sands and scurrying to identify enough members of the population in vogue to obtain money to support our programs.

I suppose the real craziness here lies in my assumption that empiricism will prevail over political realities. Changes in the social sciences probably are influenced more by politics than by objective evidence. It is a bitter pill to swallow sometimes. Yet I think there may be some ways that science can influence politics. Several professional persons such as Dollar and Klinger (1975), Repucci (1977), and Tharpe and Wetzel (1969) have applied scientific principles to the study and alteration of systems, with some successes and some failures. The knowledge they gained from their experiences is invaluable to anyone seeking to enter a sociopolitical organization such as a school district.

No doubt many of you think I'm overstating the case, and perhaps I am. While I do believe the government is motivated by a sincere desire to meet the needs of the handicapped, I fail to see that current policies are the best way to accomplish this goal.

The last, but certainly not the least, agent of the system which I'd like to

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examine for craziness is professional organizations. For what purposes do they exist? According to our constitution, the purposes of CCBD are to promote the education and general welfare of children and youth with behavioral disorders or serious emotional disturbance, and to promote professional growth and research as a means to better understand the problems of these children. These sound pretty good to me. But what objectives do professional organizations serve in practice? Over a decade ago, Lilly (1970) observed that the major concern of the membership of the Council for Exceptional Children, as expressed in the Delegate Assembly at the 1970 convention, was more efficient and effective means of processing membership forms and renewal notices.

My point here is that whatever the basis for establishing an organization, its purpose evolves into self-perpetuation. Often this means acting in ways contrary to the original service goals of the organization.

The last area I proposed to examine is society. This task appeared so awesome that I declined to attempt it in the original *Who's Crazy?* However, I have been sufficiently aroused by recent environmental atrocities to mention a few indications that we live in a crazy world. For example, a national network broadcast a feature which began with the announcement that "Tonight, we'll visit an area that has become infested with great white sharks." When I heard this, I imagined Manhattan Island teeming with sharks, somehow wriggling up Fifth Avenue to Central Park, devouring pedestrians along the way. Imagine my surprise when I learned that they meant the sharks were infesting the ocean! How is it possible for a species to infest its natural environment? And where do we get the audacity to suggest that we have more of a right to the sea than one of its oldest inhabitants? If any species can be accused of infesting their environment, it is *Homo Sapien*. Jacques Cousteau once estimated that ocean life has been depleted by 40% in the two score years he has been exploring the depths. We read almost daily of oil spills and wildlife kills, yet our relentless exploitations of natural resources continues to take precedence over the protection of the other inhabitants of the earth. A recent BC comic strip proclaimed that man's ultimate goal is to protect all the species he endangers. That may be cynical, but I wish it were true.

Do we need other examples? Consider hazardous air pollution, acid rain, rivers that burn, toxic wastes, strip mining, clear cutting, depletion of the ozone layer, and that most hideous crime of all, nuclear proliferation. What right do we have to put ourselves above all things on the earth in the name of a higher gross national product? I believe the ultimate international product may be a planet devoid of life. But since that might not occur for several more generations, we can nod our heads in agreement with the problem, and go back to thinking about ourselves. The heroine of Tom Robbins' *Another Roadside Attraction* gave us something else to think about when, in reply to the question "What is your goal in life?", she said, "To live lightly on the earth." All creatures of the planet are support systems for one another. Can we learn to live in harmony before it is too late?

Please excuse me if I have over-editorialized. I'll return to subject matter closer to our field as I conclude. Well then, what does crazy mean? To me, it means we operate in ways contrary to our avowed goals and objectives. In other words, our behavior becomes self-defeating. This definition applies whether we're talking about individuals or entire social systems. Obviously I think craziness exists in all of the levels I've been describing. Yet, since we're bigger and stronger, because our institutions are more established (and even stronger than us), we focus our attention on the craziness we allege to reside

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in children and insist that the changes occur in them instead of ourselves. The enemy, therefore, is us.

Can we change things? I think we can, and in some areas we have. What we need is a new special education. I advocate the training-based model Lilly (1971) proposed over 10 years ago. the major components of this model are support services in the regular classroom, and training and support for teachers and students experiencing problems, not just for children with labels. I also advocate new contingencies of reinforcement. these contingencies include teacher certification and advancement based on demonstrated competence and achievement of child objectives; program funding based on services, not numbers of children; special education services which are provided to those in need, not just to those who have been labeled. Such reform requires supervisors who themselves are knowledgeable, a knowledgeable and involved public, and application of our technology to the systems that effect the education of all children and youth.

"It can't be done," you say, "It has been done," I say. Examples include Vermont's Consulting Teacher Program (McKenzie, Egner, Perelman, Schneider, & Garvin, 1970; Knight, 1978) which has been providing noncategorical mainstream support services to children in educational need for over 10 years. A newer example is Minnesota's own Special Education Resource Teacher Delivery System piloted by Deno and Mirkin (1978). True, these examples apply more to mainstreaming than to more restrictive special services, but I think fundamental changes must occur which open up special education (or any treatment system) to make it part of a whole continuum of services to people, rather than a closed box to which others react out of ignorance and suspicion, if not outright fear.

Anyway, a new special education is technically possible, as are new public attitudes toward deviance and mental health treatment. Extending applications of these new approaches and beliefs throughout the country requires that we carefully examine what we are doing, drop some of our cherished beliefs, and go to work on changing ourselves and our systems. If we fail to do this, we are indeed crazy.

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Correlates of Successful Adaptive Behavior: Comparative Studies with Regular and Exceptional Adolescent Populations

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ABSTRACT

An 80-item checklist describing personal, behavioral, or descriptive characteristics was developed on the basis of literature, theory, and assessment instruments currently in use which are applicable to an adolescent population. Diverse items, worded as simply as possible, appeared on the list and respondents were asked to choose the 10 they considered most important.

Student subjects for the original study attended middle schools and senior high schools in a midwestern city. They were randomly selected and numbered over 900. They were identified only according to grade level and sex and whether or not they had formerly participated in a special education program. Only regular students or those who had been successfully mainstreamed were questioned because perceptions of those within a normalized environment were sought.

Responses from the original survey indicted broad consensus of all participating groups on a number of items, with differences emerging more on the basis of age than sex. Subsequent distributions of the checklist have included regular classes in other cities and exceptional classes for the learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and mildly mentally handicapped. Further replications are indicated by this research; a number of differences noted between exceptional populations offer questions worthy of exploration.

It is hoped that ultimately some bases for differentiation of mild exceptionalities among the teenage population may be clarified, and that the indicators may also serve as predictors for successful mainstreaming as well as guidelines for individual educational needs.

Although there has been a growing interest in adaptive behavior over the past few years (Simeonsson, 1978), there remains inadequate study of behavior specific to an adolescent behavioral scale. The need for such a scale is urgent since Public Law 94-142 requires, for identification and school placement of retarded persons specifically, reliable measures of subaverage performance in areas of intelligence and adaptive behavior.

Without a reliable behavior measurement, diagnosis of some cases of retardation remain unsure; an equally important concern is the possiblity of misdiagnosis and improper placement of students whose IQ scores are falsely depressed. Often the similarity of ED, LD, environmentally disadvantaged, and mildly retarded populations on traditional scales of measurement makes sure differentiation elusive (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1977). The AAMD Adaptive Behavior Scale (Nihira, Fostor, Shallhaas, & Leland, 1974) has facilitated this differentiation for young children, but it does not discriminate past the age of 12.

The requirement that adaptive behavior be measured has met with criticism on the ground that there exists no reliable measure of adolescent behavior (Clausen, 1972; MacMillan, 1977). Additionally, injustice of measurement in the absence of dependable behavior evaluation has been established (MacMillan, 1977; Mercer, 1973).

There are two major approaches to assessment and identification of special populations: (a) the psychometric approach which assesses intelligence, and (b) the judgment of the community about an individual's ability to be independent (Lambert, Meyers, & Opton, 1977). The second approach is the one that becomes important in diagnosing a problem as behavioral rather than intellectual. Central to the required evaluation of adaptive behavior as a legal protection is the inference that the weight of final decision resides with the behavior scale.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Some scales, such as the Vineland Social Maturity Scale (Doll, 1953) and Halpern's Social Prevocational Information Battery (Irvin, Halpern, & Reynolds, 1977) have been useful for judging self-help, social, and prevocational needs among an adolescent population, but are somewhat limited as to identification of moderately, severely, or profoundly handicapped, or projections of long-range employability (Simeonsson, 1978). They do not, however, divide sufficiently into those substrate areas of individual differences which may, with mildly exceptional subjects, represent important distinctions.

In his comprehensive review, Simeonsson (1978) listed four widely accepted categories of correlates for social competence — socializing agents, social settings, personality variables, and ability level. Others have referred to socializing agents as transition agents, an apt term for adolescent contacts since there is almost universal agreement that adolescence is an age of transition (Muuss, 1968). Cassel (1976) and Mercer (1978) have proposed that for an individual to negotiate entry into a system, he/she must be able to identify with transition agents who stand ready to accept a new member. Regular students set the standards for this adaptive fit; peer approval becomes the critical element for success as the adolescent leaves the confines of the family (Blos, 1972). In this sense, mainstreaming may be viewed as both method and goal of adaptation based on Budoff and Gottlieb's (1975) evidence that exceptional students learn behavior in regular placements.

Coleman (1961) has argued that the social environment of our adolescent subculture (where youths look to each other for model and reward) is the large, self-enclosed high school. Schools are the training ground for lives being build independently, apart from family direction or limitation. Laws concerning individual rights to this opportunity to build one's own life are appropriately subsumed under civil rights legislation (Barbacovi & Clelland, 1974), and assurance of those rights has largely been assigned to educators.

There exists substantial precedent for asking students themselves to define characteristics and norms of behavior. Coleman (1961) found that students easily identify status groups. Earlier, Hollingshead (1949) questioned students extensively in order to demonstrate that they could judge their own leader/follower qualities. Ketcham and Morse (1963) studied student responses in order to learn how they (the students) differentiated personal and social achievement from academic achievement. This is precisely the dimension which a behavior scale should measure.

Relative to the need for detailed and specific study of the perceptions of all exceptional populations is evidence that many observer investigations have failed to differentiate behaviors of learning disabled (LD), emotionally disturbed (ED), and mildly retarded (MiMH) students (Gordon, 1972; Sattler, 1974). Sorenson's (1973) meticulous interviews have demonstrated the value of self-reporting of adolescents. However, a checklist may be especially appropriate for maladapted teenagers because of the high incidence of poor verbal skills among some exceptional populations (Gagne, 1977).

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

This monograph compares results of earlier research into adolescent adaptive behavior (Cortez, 1982) and subsequent follow-up studies with selected exceptional populations. The purpose of these and continuing studies has been to learn, from secondary students, characteristics which are widely accepted as essential elements of behavior for regularly placed school students. (The original study included teachers and parents.) The long term purpose of the inquiries is to generate items which might later be incorporated into a reliable scale of adolescent adaptive behavior. It is expected that these items will also point the way toward individualized goals for those adolescents who have been classified as mildly retarded, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled, and who may be mainstreamed in the future.

METHOD, SUBJECTS, AND PROCEDURE

An 80-item checklist describing personal, behavioral, or descriptive characteristics was developed on the basis of literature, adolescent personality theory, and scales in use. Diverse items appeared on the list, and respondents were asked to choose the 10 which, in their opinions, represented the traits most important for students to possess in order to get along well in life. Items were worded as simply as possible, such as: *Is always on time;* or, *Likes own parents.* For purposes of balancing the kinds of items presented and analyzing responses, the 80 items were classified into six categories, or domains: (a) Desire for peer acceptance; (b) identity with the total community (including life outside school); (c) advantages available from home; (d) academic competence; (e) regard for school training and its subsequent record; and (f) self-esteem.

The original study was conducted in a midsized midwestern city (population approximately 300,000). Three of the city's large high schools and three middle schools supplied the specific locations, from which two classes from each grade level in all buildings were randomly drawn. This sample producd 932 student participants, 557 of whom were senior high school subjects (grades 9 through 12) and 375 of whom were middle school subjects (grades 6 through 8).

Respondents were asked to identify their sex, grade level, and whether or not they had ever been students in special learning classes. When 87 students identified themselves as former special subjects, a sample of mainstreamed students was provided. In order to pace the responses and eliminate reading problems, teachers read the items aloud. Items were checked on a second reading so that student selections were made only after hearing the entire list. Final comparisons of selections were based on student subgroups by sex and

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school level (middle school males, middle school females, etc.). Selections by the mainstreamed students were compared and contrasted with the total sample, which later became the comparison standard for smaller studies of regular and exceptional students in other communities.

The follow-up studies were conducted in cities about one-third the size of the original community. All cities are in the same state, but each is in a different part of the state. They are not similar in tone or ethnic make up; the original community (City A) contains central offices for several national corporations, enjoys a number of cultural establishments including several colleges and a university extension branch, and has a sizeable professional population. City B is basically a blue-collar community. Its factories are mostly owned by distant auto corporations. City C also contains automobile factories but is surrounded by farmland in three directions and the presence of a large air force installation.

In all follow-up studies, checklists were distributed to students (if they wished to participate) by their own teachers and instructions and procedures were the same as in City A. Checklists were distributed to regular students by teachers who expressed an interest; this was also true of some special classes and, as a result, special teachers who had classes in the same schools were asked to participate in order to include LD, ED and MiMH. The City B regular students attended middle and senior high schools. All special classes were also located in City B. Participants from City C were all in middle schools.

Checklist Items Most Freqently Selected by Students
In Original Study: CITY A

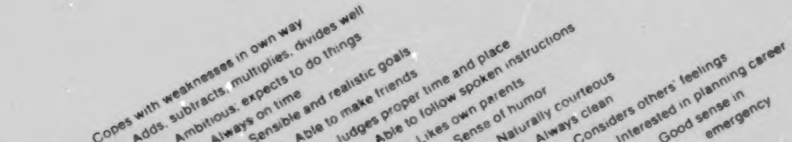

Figure 1. *Graph contrasting selections of student subgroups relative to total count of choices of all student participants.*

FINDINGS

Figure 1 illustrates 15 items selected most frequently by students from City A. It may be noted that similarity of choice seemed to be a function of age rather than sex. Also, greater conformity of opinion was demonstrated by senior high females than by any other subgroup. Items omitted by specific groups are indicated by circles on their graph lines.

Table 1 lists the top 15 choices of each subgroup from City A, including the percentage of each subgroup that included the item among individual *top ten* choices. On each subgroup list, items chosen by that population (for example, middle school males), but not accorded priority by the total survey, appear in parentheses. The complete checklist is printed in the Appendix.

Table 2 ranks items chosen in Cities B and C. Items in parentheses are those not in agreement with the arbitrarily named *standard* of City A totals. It should be noted that the first 12 of the top 15 choices from City B were also among the top 15 choices of City A. Only 10 of the first 15 items selected by City C students also appeared on the City A total list, but their choices were quite similar to those of City A middle school participants. Of the City C (all middle school) specific choices, 4 were also selected by the City A middle school sample. All exceptional student samples were drawn from senior high and middle schools.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on responses from all regularly placed students who have participated in these studies, would-be peers who seek mainstreaming will be expected to react sensibly in situations that require independent judgment, show practical interest in their own futures, demonstrate some ability to understand another's point of view or feelings, practice personal cleanliness, accept their own parentage or backgrounds, conform to a work/play behavior code that is appropriate to the situation, return friendship, and express realistic attitudes toward themselves. In addition, all regular middle school groups appear to believe acceptable peers will care for their own possessions, learn things by watching others, worry about their grades in school, and finish assignments. The concrete orientation of younger students may provide interesting data for stage theorists.

Consistency among regular participants seems demonstrable. Analysis of the first 10 items chosen by all subgroups reveals that all selected by the City B regular students also appeared among at least the top 15 of the list chosen by the City A population. Among the top 10, 7 items selected by the City C middle students also appeared among the first 15 of the City A Total sampling. Of the City C's 3, 2 items that differed (Item 1 and 6) did not represent real differences when compared to City A's middle school students specifically.

The LD students chose, among their top 10, 6 items that were not included on the first 15 list of City A; the ED students chose 6 (different) items that were omitted from City A's priority selections; and the MiMH students included 9 items among their top 10 that did not appear on the City A Total list. In contrast to these subgroups, the (apparently) successfully mainstreamed students of City A included all but 1 (*Likes own parents*) of the top 10 selected by the total city group.

Differing items selected by LD students were mostly school or study related, such as Item 7 (*Willingness to do work over for credit*), Item 32 (*Keeping track of grades*), and Item 59 (*Willingness to ask questions*).

ED students assigned priority to items reflecting skills that might provide

TABLE 1

Rank Order of Items Most Frequently Selected by Each Student Subgroup and the Total Student Vote, Including Percentage of Agreement Within Each Subgroup and the Total Group of Original Study: CITY A

	Middle School Males	Middle School Females	Senior High Males	Senior High Females	Main-streamed Students	Total Student Response
RANK	Item %	Item %	Item %	Item %	Item %	Item %
1.	11 51	11 56	11 59	73 59	11 56	11 55
2.	26 41	26 40	4 47	11 57	4 44	4 42
3.	23 33	23 37	73 39	4 51	26 39	73 39
4.	(17) 31	28 35	12 36	67 49	23 35	26 39
5.	4 30 50 30	3 34	39 34	40 45	73 32	67 33
6.		50 32	40 32 67 32	26 44	12 31 42 31	12 31 50 31
7.	(1) 29	42 30 (17) 30		12 42		
8.	28 29		26 31 71 31	71 40.1	(1) 28	23 30.4
9.	30 24	30 29		39 39.9	17 25	39 29.5
10.	73 23	73 28	20 29.1	42 33 50 33	(6) 24 (20) 24 40 24	42 29
11.	(47) 22.5 42 22.5	(47) 27	30 29			40 28.6
12.		(6) 24	50 28 42 28	20 30		30 27
13.	(6) 22 (10) 22	67 23		23 28	39 23 (59) 23	71 26
14.		(1) 21 12 21 (46) 21	23 37	30 27.6		28 23.3
15.	67 21		(1) 26	70 26.6	(5) 22 (9) 22 30 22 67 22	20 23.1

broader personal acceptance, such as Item 19 (*Doing things well at home*), Item 5 (*Speaking easily with authority figures*), and Item 27 (*Having an attractive personal appearance*).

The only clear pattern that emerges from the MiMH student choices is a tendency to select items which appeared near the beginning of the checklist. It may be theorized that limited retention of possibly important later items

TABLE 2

Rank Order of Items Most Frequently Selected by Specific Small Groups of Regular and Exceptional Students: Cities B & C

RANK	LD (N=47)	ED (N=20)	MIMH (N=31)	Reg. CITY B (N=51)	Reg. CITY C (N=90)
1.	11	11	(2)	4	11
2.	30	4	4	40	26
3.	4	(19)	11	71	50
4.	39	26		73	4
5.	(1)	(5)	(8)	11	(6)
6.				42	23
7.	(32) 73	(27) (1) (6)		39 67 50	30
8.			(1) (3) (5)	12	73
9.	(17) 23 28		(7) (13)		(1)
10.	(47) (59)	40 50 67			(27)
11.		(7) (9) (16)		26 20	42
12.		23 73			(9)
13.			(6) 28	(54) (59) (46)	(46)
14.	(2) (9) (16)			(70) (17)	(17)
15.	50		(10) (14) (24) 30 (35) (56)		39 40

caused them to "spend" all their votes quickly. The first item omitted from their top 15 list was Item #12 (*Has a sense of humor, an air of joy and good will*). This is an abstract concept compared to the previous 11 on the checklist (which they chose) and the following 2 (which they also chose). However, Item 12 was given a substantial consensus by the mainstreamed students, who are believed to have once been mostly MiMH students themselves.

Participants were also asked to rank the six domains, and major differences were noted between MiMH judgments and those of other groups. Regular, LD, and ED students all rated self-esteem as most important. They differed only slightly about whether academic skills or their record (grades) should come next, and then chose either peer acceptance or community interest (Domains A and B) as fourth or fifth in importance. All ranked family and home advantages as least important. However, the MiMH students rated self-esteem only third, with academic skills first, home advantages fourth, and peer acceptance last.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is believed that some achievements that underlie social adequacy may be inferred from the data obtained in these studies since regular students from different cities made largely identical item choices from the checklist. Perhaps it may be possible to arrive at some minimum percentage of concurrence with norms on a set list of behaviors or characteristics. The possibility of using the same set of norms to judge the receptive quality of a specified environment might also be explored. The good response of mainstreamed students provides encouraging evidence that students can judge themselves ready for mainstreaming when, indeed, they are ready. With further exploration and modification of the present checklist it is hoped that a protocol can be devised whereby students who disagree to a great extent with their peer group may be scored in terms of some codified guide. It should be possible to interpret divergent responses in terms of the extent and types of supportive needs that may be indicated. To that end, research will be continued and, hopefully, a formula for responsible interpretation developed. More extensive breakdown of data is available to others upon request.

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APPENDIX: *Student Checklist*

Please check the appropriate boxes:

1. I am enrolled in the: 6th☐ 7th☐ 8th☐
9th☐ 10th☐ 11th☐ 12th☐ Grade.

2. I am: Male☐
Female☐

3. Have you *ever* been a student in a special learning class?
YES☐ NO☐

Following is a list of characteristics that may describe some students. Please read the list, looking for characteristics that you would consider most important in life. You may find it helpful to think of the kind of a student who would get along well in your school.

Look for items that apply to students of *your sex* and *your* age.

1. As you read the list, please mark with a pencil the boxes in Row I next to those characteristics you would consider important.
2. Next, please review the boxes you have checked and pick the *ten* (10) that you feel belong at the top of the list. Mark these in the box in Row II, using a pen or marker or pencil of another color. Do not rank these choices.

Thank you for your time.

II **I**

☐ ☐ 1. The ability to follow visual instructions; to learn by watching.
☐ ☐ 2. Works at a full or part-time job.
☐ ☐ 3. Often completes work before it is due.
☐ ☐ 4. Is interested in planning his career or learning a job.
☐ ☐ 5. Talks easily with persons in authority.
☐ ☐ 6. Takes care of his possessions.
☐ ☐ 7. Will do work over for extra credit.
☐ ☐ 8. Reads common words or signs easily.

☐ ☐ 9. Speaks well of sisters or brothers.
☐ ☐ 10. Reads graphs or maps well.
☐ ☐ 11. Would use good sense in an emergency.
☐ ☐ 12. Has a sense of humor; an air of joy and good will.
☐ ☐ 13. Does not make special requests.
☐ ☐ 14. Seems older than other students.
☐ ☐ 15. Is interested in animals.
☐ ☐ 16. Will work for a reward.
☐ ☐ 17. Worries about grades.
☐ ☐ 18. Is an active member of some church group.
☐ ☐ 19. Is interested in home skills (cooking, home repair, etc.).
☐ ☐ 20. Copes with weaknesses by figuring out how to do things in own way.
☐ ☐ 21. Likes music; knows words and melodies of songs.
☐ ☐ 22. Likes science and field trips.
☐ ☐ 23. Is able to follow spoken instructions.
☐ ☐ 24. Volunteers to answer hard questions in class.
☐ ☐ 25. Has had private music or art lessons.
☐ ☐ 26. Is always clean.
☐ ☐ 27. Has an attractive personal appearance.
☐ ☐ 28. Can add, subtract, multiply and divide well.
☐ ☐ 29. Makes good contributions to class and group discussions.
☐ ☐ 30. Is always on time.
☐ ☐ 31. Interested in sports.
☐ ☐ 32. Keeps track of grades for assignments and tests.
☐ ☐ 33. Tries to use books and materials that look new.
☐ ☐ 34. Likes programs like *National Geographic Specials* on TV.
☐ ☐ 35. Is good at some sport learned outside of school.
☐ ☐ 36. Is interested in art.
☐ ☐ 37. Knows names of important or famous people.
☐ ☐ 38. Plans assignments well.
☐ ☐ 39. Judges the proper time and place for work, play, etc.
☐ ☐ 40. Has sensible and realistic goals.
☐ ☐ 41. Carries out some daily job at home.
☐ ☐ 42. Is able to make friendships among classmates.
☐ ☐ 43. Is interested in nature.
☐ ☐ 44. Competes in activities for prizes, like school magazine sales.
☐ ☐ 45. Has gone on long trip with parents or other group.
☐ ☐ 46. Shares things.
☐ ☐ 47. Always finishes assignments.
☐ ☐ 48. Willing to make a speech in class for a report.
☐ ☐ 49. Tries to sit near the front of the room.
☐ ☐ 50. Likes own parents.
☐ ☐ 51. Interested in clothes, hair style, etc.
☐ ☐ 52. Seems to weigh the right amount.
☐ ☐ 53. Willing to accept changes in class routine or schedule or seating.
☐ ☐ 54. Is able to work well alone.
☐ ☐ 55. Has a pleasant voice.
☐ ☐ 56. Is helpful to other students, including new or younger students.
☐ ☐ 57. Has attended a camp away from home.
☐ ☐ 58. Desires to be accepted by others who are well liked.
☐ ☐ 59. Is willing to ask questions.

☐ ☐ 60. Accurately remembers hearing things.
☐ ☐ 61. Can figure out requests or assignments before they are given.
☐ ☐ 62. Reads well enough to understand the newspaper.
☐ ☐ 63. Wants to work on projects with good students.
☐ ☐ 64. Enjoys games, such as *Monopoly.*
☐ ☐ 65. Has attended plays and concerts outside of school.
☐ ☐ 66. Will get work done in order to have some free time.
☐ ☐ 67. Is naturally courteous to people.
☐ ☐ 68. Is neat with assigments.
☐ ☐ 69. Knows now to look things up in the library.
☐ ☐ 70. Is able to take "kidding."
☐ ☐ 71. Ambitious; expects to accomplish things.
☐ ☐ 72. Takes part in out-of-school activities (Scouts, clubs, etc.)
☐ ☐ 73. Shows consideration for others' feelings.
☐ ☐ 74. Likes to collect and own things.
☐ ☐ 75. Seeks help from teacher or other student with school work.
☐ ☐ 76. Remembers accurately what is seen.
☐ ☐ 77. Participates in school sports.
☐ ☐ 78. Learns well from educational films.
☐ ☐ 79. Knows the main streets, parks, places of interest in town and nearby area.
☐ ☐ 80. Spends time working on some hobby.

Please rank the following general traits on a scale of *1* to *6* according to their importance in your opinion.

1 = *Most* important; 2 = *Quite* important; 3 = *Moderately* important;
4 = *Only Occasionally* important; 5 = *Seldom* important;
6 = *Least* important

_____ Student has had the benefit of cultural activities (including travel) with family.
_____ Student has good learning skills.
_____ Student believes in himself or herself.
_____ Student cares about grades.
_____ Student is comfortable with persons outside of own age and interest group.
_____ Student is liked by other students.

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Sexual Behavior Disorders in Adolescents

William D. Erickson

Delinquent sexual behavior has many causes, stemming from miscarriages of development, patterns of behavior learned in deviant homes, or part of a general antisocial orientation. The range of sexually delinquent behaviors is different for males than for females. Male adolescents are not considered delinquent because they are sexually active with a number of different partners. Teenage girls rarely molest young children, although child molesters make up a large proportion of male sexual delinquents. Many behaviors that are sexual or have sexual connotations, such as cross dressing, are not considered delinquent since they do not involve or endanger anyone else.

The number of special treatment programs for sexual delinquents is increasing, although there is little objective evidence that sexual delinquents are sufficiently different from nonsexual delinquents to warrant special programming. This paper will review the literature on sexual delinquency, present some new data on the relationship between sexual and nonsexual misconduct in males, and suggest general guidelines for effective intervention with them in nonspecialized treatment programs.

Sexual Behavior Disorders in Female Adolescents

Sexual misbehavior by adolescent girls consists almost exclusively of contact with males who are willing participants. Although increased sexual permissiveness has dramatically altered operational definitions about sexual misconduct among girls, a double standard still exists. Girls, not boys, are arrested because of "immoral companions" (Johnson & Oleisky, 1980). There are significant differences between the sexes in patterns of sexual misbehavior. There is no element of force or coercion of the sexual partner in the initiation of sexual contact by females, as there may be with males. Aside from the fact that force is unlikely to be necessary, there are innate differences in sexual and aggressive behavior which make violent sexual assaults unheard of in females. Females are much less likely than males to become sexually aroused by pornography, fantasy (Miller & Simon, 1980), or suggestive social situations. The likelihood of acting violently in response to sexual frustration is common among male offenders, but is almost certainly dramatically less in females, though there is little documentation.

While many delinquent girls have various problems in sexual behavior, the only distinctive form of sexual delinquency for female adolescents is prostitution. The onset of prostitution is usually during middle to late adolescence (Maerov, 1965). The complex motivations of teenage prostitutes are poorly understood. Early analytic writers stressed neurotic aspects, specifically the acting out of Oedipal conflicts and the need to defy parental standards (Glover, 1960). The role of masochism and the high suicide rate in this group has also been noted (Greenwald, 1970). Family studies have shown that separation from parents, gross neglect, child abuse, and incest are common antecedents (Maerov, 1965), though it is unlikely that they are specific to prostitution.

Incest has many potential consequences. Sexual dysfunction and frigidity are more common than promiscuity or prostitution (Meiselman, 1978). Prostitution following an incestuous experience is typified by an early age of beginning sexual intercourse and by a history of being rewarded for sex (James & Meyerdig, 1977). Emotionally supportive bonds to sexually abusive parents are unlikely, and patterns of rewarded sexual contact without emotional intimacy are perpetuated.

Sexual Behavior Disorders in Male Adolescents

Early literature on delinquency in male adolescents did not discuss sexual misdeeds in relation to other antisocial behavior, with few exceptions. The Gluecks' (1950) study of 500 delinquents, for instance, did not mention sexual behavior at all. It was generally accepted that sexual misdeeds were somehow different from other delinquent behavior, were unlikely to be repeated, and that good outcomes could be expected for boys whose only misbehavior was sexual (Atcheson & Williams, 1954; Doshay, 1943).

Professional literature, like popular folklore, tended to divide sexual delinquents into two groups. Violently aggressive or frankly psychotic boys were considered dangerously disordered and in need of confinement. Less violent acts were seen as the result of misguided curiosity or neurotic conflicts by boys who could be expected to gain better control of themselves with time and some help (Doshay, 1943; Maclay, 1960). Constitutional inferiority and the effects of disturbed family relationships, especially with mothers, have also been invoked as explanations for sexual misbehavior by adolescent males. The Cambridge-Somerville study, McCord, McCord, and Verden (1966), described the mothers of adolescent sex offenders as sexually anxious and authoritarian, promoting dependency, and covertly stimulating their sons. Fathers were described as punitive, promiscuous, and often absent. Karpman's (1954) descriptions of the parents of adult sex offenders is very similar. Several authors have noted the frequency of early sexual contact with adults and the importance of early exposure to sexual perversion in their juvenile offenders (McCord et al., 1966; Shoor, Speed, & Bartelt, 1966; Szurek, 1954).

These early psychodynamically oriented reports were not followed by more empiric studies until the recent studies by Lewis, Shanok, and Pincus (1979) that indicate few discernible differences between violent juvenile sexual assaulters and violent nonsexual assaulters. Especially violent male adolescents in both groups were more likely to have been severely abused by family members, and to have witnessed violence. They also had more neurological and psychiatric signs of impairment than their less aggressive peers. Of the child molesters reported by Shoor et al. (1966), 62% were noted to have had previous nonsexual delinquency records.

Early prognostic statements that boys with only sexual psychopathology had good outcomes (Doshay, 1943) were based on populations that included large numbers of teenagers arrested because of apparently consenting relationships with males or females their own age. Of Markey's (1950) male subjects, 52% had been arrested for homosexual behavior with another consenting adolescent or adult. These youths are no longer prosecuted and have largely disappeared from court psychiatric clinics, leaving a very different cohort of offenders than those who formed the basis for such optimistic comments.

The Relationship Between Sexual and Nonsexual Delinquency in Adolescent Males

Since the makeup of sexually delinquent adolescent populations has changed with changing responses to homosexual behavior, and since empirical data suggest strongly that at least some sexual offenders are not dramatically different from nonsexual delinquents, a closer look at their characteristics appeared to be in order. An opportunity to take such a look occurred in the author's practice.

Between 1978 and 1980 we evaluated 40 teenage males referred because of some sexual misdeed. Detailed histories were obtained from the clients, their parents, and from social workers and probation officers. Intelligence and psychological testing was done, and all clients participated in a 60-day inpatient program of intense personal and group therapy. At the end of this time, recommendations were made to the individuals, their families, and the court as to optimal further treatment and the likelihood of future offenses.

Information on the nature of the index sexual offense, past similar offenses, and personal characteristics of the clients was gathered and analyzed to determine characteristics of each type of offender; i.e., a profile of adolescent rapists, child molesters, or exhibitionists, and the likelihood and characteristics of their nonsexual delinquent behavior.

Of the 40 index offenses, 19 were sexual assaults on adolescent or adult females. Most of the victims were strangers, and some form of force or coercion was used in each case. Nine youths molested male children and six molested female children. No force was used in these cases, though many victims were frightened. Three youths were referred because of incestuous relationships with their younger sisters. Two clients had histories of sexual exposure, and one was evaluated because of repeated inappropriate touching of girls in public places. A previous history of sexual misbehavior was present in 65% of the cases.

Three youths were schizophrenic. One had auditory hallucinations and systematized paranoid delusions. The other two showed severe cognitive disorganization, poor reality testing, and delusional thinking. Physical handicaps included severe visual impairment in one case, a badly crippled hand in another, and two youths had significant nonfocal neurological findings with severe perceptual and learning disability.

Of adolescents whose present offense was against females their own age or older, 63% had committed a prior sexual offense and were also likely to have past histories of other, nonsexual, antisocial behavior. Their previous and present victims were female. None showed signs of major mental illness and none had a physical handicap. They were somewhat older with an average of 16.9 years, compared to an average of 15.4 years for those whose victims were younger than themselves.

Among the molesters of children, there were distinctive differences between offenders against male and female children. Two of the nine molesters of male children were schizophrenic and all were repeaters of the same act. Only two of the six molesters of female children had previously committed the same offense, and they were more likely to have a handicap. There was no evident relationship between sibling incest, exhibitionism, or groping and any other variable.

Discriminant function analysis, using the index offense as the dependent variable, indicated that either the history of nonsexual delinquency or a previous sexual offense against an adolescent or older female predicted that the present offense would be against an adolescent or adult female 85% of the time. The number of subjects in the other offense categories is too small for statistical analysis. We have, however, studied similar data on 340 adult male sex offenders and found exactly the same strong association between rape and nonsexual felony convictions, with much less clear associations for other offenses.

Among these youths one distinct group was apparent, consisting of older teenagers with well-established delinquent histories, who sexually assaulted girls and women near their own age. Many of these boys are likely to be diagnosed as having antisocial personalities in adult life (Gersten, Langner, & Eisenberg, 1976; Morris, Escoll, & Wexler, 1956; Robins, 1966). The remainder had various physical and psychiatric handicaps, and they were quite unlikely either to choose a victim near their own age or to use much violence. A past history of sexual misbehavior was frequent for all types of offense except sibling incest.

Reports of low recidivism rates for sexual delinquency in earlier studies appear to have been influenced by case selection, very brief follow-up periods, failure to note that the index offense was itself a repeat offense, and by the inclusion of youths involved in consenting relationships with age-mates. The results of this study resemble more closely the findings of Gebhard, Gagnon, Pomeroy, and Christenson, (1965), and Amir (1971) regarding adult sex offenders. Gebhard studied 1,551 offenders and found that from 23% to 44% of aggressive offenders had records of prior convictions for sex offenses, as did 35% of molesters of male children, and 19% of exhibitionists. Of his sexual aggressors against women and girls, 55% had juvenile arrest records, compared to 20% of molesters of male children, 13% of molesters of female children, and 13% of exhibitionists. Amir found that 41% of rapists had previously been arrested for crimes against property and 43% for crimes against persons.

The strong association that was found between sexual assaults on adults or older teenage girls and other serious antisocial behavior lends some credence to the concept of rape as an aggressive rather than exclusively a sexual act. These individuals had documented histories of violent behavior and their sexual assaults were often committed when they were frustrated or angry. The amount of actual physical violence occurring in any sexual offense is more often determined by the size and resistiveness of the victim than by gratuitous sadism. When there is a discrepancy between the size of the offender and his victim, as often occurs in adolescence, intimidation is usually sufficient. The value of discriminations based on the use of physical violence are therefore somewhat debatable. The age of the victim relative to the teenage offender and the offender's past delinquent history are more heuristic measures.

We doubt that the physical and sexual abuse of these boys by their parents are experiences peculiar to sexual offenders. Sexually provocative relationships with abusive parents are found frequently in the life histories of both male and female sexual delinquents, incest and physical abuse being common childhood experiences of prostitutes (James & Meyerdig, 1977; MacVicar & Dillon, 1980). Absence of information about sexual abuse in psychiatric reports of nonsexual criminal populations (Gibbens, 1957; Guze, Goodwin, & Crane, 1969) is more likely due to failure of investigators to inquire.

Inevitable future development and life changes among younger adolescents make long-term prediction of their outcomes generally unwise. However, follow-up studies of aggressive behavior disorders which persist into the late teen years (Gersten et al., 1976; Morris et al., 1956) are quite uniform in their finding that prognoses are poor, with very high likelihood of antisocial outcome. We would infer from this a higher probability of future aggressive sexual offenses for the older subjects who assaulted females their own age or older, but only as one of a number of violent antisocial acts. The boys who had molested female children appeared to have the greatest capacity for psychological growth, despite their physical handicaps. This finding might suppport a cautious prediction of more benign outcome for boys who molest young girls, especially first time offenders.

Intervention

Adolescent treatment programs are often reluctant to accept male sexual delinquents, and there is a recent trend toward the provision of specialized programs for them. There is little that is unique about sexual delinquents, male or female. Arguments in favor of specialized programs must be based on the inadequacy of regular programs in dealing with sexual matters.

Specific treatment programs for male adolescent sex offenders take a variety of approaches that aim to increase self-expression, raise levels of sexual knowledge, change patterns of thinking, and increase a sense of responsibility for one's own behavior (Knopp, 1982). Follow-up studies to assess the effect of such treatment on recidivism rates are not yet available.

Teenagers with sexual problems can ideally be integrated into already existing programs for troubled adolescents, since their treatment needs are much the same. This integration is sometimes handled poorly, especially in coeducational settings. Education of staff about the relationships between sexual behavior and other aspects of personality, and the development of intervention skills in this area will greatly increase a program's willingness to include these youths.

Important programming components that relate to the treatment needs of sexual delinquents include sex education, increasing appropriate social skills, and teaching interpersonal responsibility and respect for others' feelings and privacy. None of these are in any way different from the treatment needs of nonsexual delinquents. Adolescent sex offenders tend to be quite guarded and make much use of denial. Early discussions of their sexual misdeeds are more likely to be successful if they take place one-to-one with a male staff person who is well-trained and comfortable with taking a detailed sexual history. This focus on detailed sexual history seems to demystify sexual issues and begins the process of accepting responsibility for one's own sexual behavior.

Early stages of treatment, especially for boys, are facilitated by the opportunity to air their feelings with others with similar problems and with male staff. These youths become severely anxious discussing sexual issues in the presence of female peers or staff. Premature efforts to discuss sexual issues in coeducational groups are likely to increase resistance rather than facilitate growth.

Adolescent prostitutes are often included in programs for incest and sexual assault victims. While these programs will address some aspect of their treatment needs, there is risk of intensifying their sense of victimization and ignoring the conduct-disordered aspects of their behavior.

Sexually provocative girls create tension and conflict in treatment programs, raising anxiety among their peers, and stimulating intense reactions in staff. Potentially explosive situations can only be handled with care and training (McNeil & Morse, 1964; Erickson & Realmuto, in press).

Advice about contraception, abortion, adopting, and childcare must be readily available and presented with a supportive attitude. To the disturbed adolescent, sexual intercourse often symbolizes maturity, and with it, freedom from punitive and coercive parental demands. Because of this, the concern of adults about contraception and pregnancy planning is often interpreted as just another parental demand, countered by denial and defiance. Contraceptive advice to male adolescents is too often forgotten, and should be an integral part of adolescent treatment programs.

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A Conceptual Framework for Providing Services to Seriously Emotionally Disturbed Children and Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

Through the implementation of a combination of five critical concepts, the RICA-Cheltenham program attempts to provide a milieu whereby all activities are designed to have therapeutic impact on the students. Essentially, each adult, as a team member, becomes a provider of therapeutic services in concert with others. The "system" at RICA-Cheltenham emphasizes the development of a network or community effect whereby certain important messages are emphasized through specific means of communication including a common language. The sense of community is emphasized through the development of family alliances and stability, the focus on self-esteem and the resulting respect for self and others, and the enhancement of growth, development, independence, and responsibility. These latter emphases represent the treatment objectives at RICA-Cheltenham.

RICA (Regional Institute for Children and Adolescents)-Cheltenham Center is a day and residential treatment program for seriously emotionally disturbed children and adolescents. It is located in Prince George County, Maryland, a suburb of Washington, D.C., and serves a four-county area in southern Maryland. Established in 1976, it was developed as a public interagency program with the purpose of providing special education and mental health services to the targeted population without removing them from their home communities. All students are referred to the program to be screened for admission through a process detailed by the state's special education bylaws.

The program serves 75 male and female students of elementary, junior high, and senior high school ages (approximately 10-18 years old). The most restrictive level of services, residential care, is received by 20 students while the remainder attend the day school program. Residential and day students are fully integrated within the school program. The average length of stay for all students is approximately 2 years.

In order to be admitted to the RICA-Cheltenham program students must meet a combination of criteria promulgated by State Board of Education bylaws and State Health Department criteria. Up-to-date psychological and psychiatric reports must reflect the criteria. The bylaws provide a definition which stresses the demonstration of one or more specific characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked degree and which adversely affect(s) educational performance. The characteristics are as follows:

1. An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors;
2. An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers;
3. Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances;
4. A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression;
5. A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

State Health Department criteria focus on mental health factors and stress the importance of severe mental illness. Particular emphasis is placed on major mood and thought disorders. Conduct disorders and/or drug abuse, by themselves, are not criteria for admission. Students who are judged to be imminently dangerous to themselves or other are referred for psychiatric hospitalization. Students are only accepted if RICA-Cheltenham is the least restrictive appropriate environment available.

Upon admission, students are assigned to one of three teams, elementary, junior high, or senior high, according to their level of school placement. Each team provides an array of multidisciplinary services by components representing educational, mental health, residential, and medical. Each component represents a separately administered section of the program integrated with the others through the team structure.

The education component provides special education services to the students emphasizing the identification and clarification of each student's academic, social, physical, and perceptual strengths and weaknesses in concert with the local board of education's curriculums. It includes a mainstream program so that students who have made significant progress can begin a re-integration process to less restrictive educational programs. The average class has nine students assigned to a special education teacher and an aide. In addition to certified special education teachers the school program has teachers specializing and certified in the areas of art, music, physical education, and reading.

The extent of the students' emotional problems requires intensive therapeutic services. The mental health component provides direct services through individual, group, and family therapy to the students and their families. The mental health practitioners, either psychologists or psychiatric social workers, are active in consultative roles to the other components with regard to mental health matters. They also direct the formulation of the students' treatment plans with team members from the other components.

For some students the least restrictive level of appropriate services needed is provided through RICA-Cheltenham's residential component. It provides a structured living milieu designed to enhance the students' growth and maturity through their living as members of a community. Emphasis is placed on aiding the students' development of skills in interpersonal communication and problem solving. Residential staff provide counseling and are certified as child care workers in the state's personnel system.

Treatment of minor illnesses and injuries, physical examinations, and psychiatric consultation and evaluation are provided by the medical component. It coordinates the dissemination and receipt of medical and psychiatric records regarding RICA-Cheltenham students with professionals in the community. Medical and psychiatric issues of individual students are coordinated through the appropriate team and treatment plans. Medical services are provided on a part-time basis by a physician, a psychiatrist, and a dentist, and on a full-time basis by nursing staff.

As members of teams, representatives of these components cojointly formulate and implement treatment plans. The treatment plans attempt to provide adequate structure for each student while also being receptive to the various needs for self-exploration and self-expression that each student has. Emphasis is placed on aiding each student to accept responsibility for his/her actions and to find his/her own growth and adjustment.

CRITICAL CONCEPTS

The notion of community-based treatment provides the philosophical underpinning upon which the program's system of service delivery operates. RICA-Cheltenham's existence, concepts, and techniques for treatment stresses the belief that clinical treatment should reinforce the normal social units responsible for children (Hobbs, 1975). The program recognizes the need for such treatment to occur in the most appropriate and least restrictive environment possible. Towards that end a specific model of programming for seriously emotionally disturbed children and adolescents has been developed. It is characterized by the combination and organization of five critical concepts which are implemented in the day-to-day functioning of the program in very concrete ways. Each are described below:

Positive expectations. The focus of the educational and therapeutic interventions made in the program is oriented toward positive expectations. This is not to say that the problems and shortcomings of the students are ignored. Realistic and serious consideration is given to such problems and shortcomings during the screening process, as well as during the planning of educational and therapeutic strategies. However,a strong emphasis is continually placed on the best that each student has to offer. An attempt is made to consciously focus on positive attributes and strengths within each student, and to encourage their development. An attempt is also made to maintain a generally optimistic attitude with regard to the potential for each student, as well as the motivation behind various inappropriate and disturbing behaviors.

The implementation of the concept of positive expectations starts with the initial review of referral material, when an attempt is made to identify positive attributes and potentials of the students which could be facilitated by the RICA-Cheltenham program. In some cases this will result in an attempt to begin planning for some special programming not already available, and in other cases it will simply lead to a notation to include such things in the initial educational and treatment plans. Once the student is actually in the program, careful observation will be made in an attempt to identify additional strengths that could be emphasized and further augmented. Also, attempts are made to point out to the student positive behaviors and attributes which, in turn, can enhance the self-esteem of the student.

A poignant example of the utilization of this concept is shown by the programming for a 15-year-old female student. Information from the records and from the initial interview revealed that this young lady had considerable artistic talent in drawing and painting. Strategies included in her treatment plan emphasized the utilization of this talent in her academic program and as a mode of therapy. Furthermore, because of her growing interest and motivation, planning was directed towards helping her become prepared for a return to a regular or fine arts school program where she could utilize and expand her talents.

Circle of adults. Although it is technically possible for a student to remain in the RICA-Cheltenham program until one day before his or her 22nd birthday, it is quite rare. The vast majority of the students are under the age of 18 and are, therefore, legally minors. The concept of the circle of adults has evolved to describe the pattern that is encouraged with regard to the interactions between the student and the significant adults in his/her life (Hobbs, 1975). The core of the significant group of adults is, of course, the parents and other close relatives. However, it can also include friends of the family who are not relatives, neighbors, representatives of various social agencies, private therapists, or almost any other adult who is involved in the life of the student in a significant and caring way. It is assumed that the RICA-Cheltenham staff who are working with the student will also become part of the circle. The image of the circle has evolved in part because of the connotation of containment, since limit setting and limit testing are frequently significant issues with the students. The image of the circle also implies very strongly that the significant adults around the student have joined their efforts in a cooperative fashion to try to help the student. Daily contact between the adults and the student is viewed as an opportunity for his/her therapeutic education or reeducation (Trieschman, 1969). This attitude of cooperative effort on the part of all the adults is consciously and carefully cultivated at each opportunity. The ultimate goal is that each student will be able to join the circle through the development of mature decision-making and coping skills.

The initial application of the concept of the circle of adults is made when the prescreening interview is scheduled. This interview occurs after a referral has been made and after receipt of appropriate information about the student's education and therapeutic history. A letter is sent to the parents of the referred student explaining that it is the program's belief and exprience that in order to effectively serve their child all of the significant adults in his/her life must join together in a cooperative effort. It further states that it is necessary for both parents (if both are still alive and involved in the student's life in any way), other significant adults (frequently including case workers, probation officers or therapists), and the child to attend the prescreening interview. A suggested meeting time is provided and the parents are asked to call to confirm the appointment.

At the interview an attempt is made to expose the student and the parents to staff members representing each component of RICA-Cheltenham, so that the cooperative interaction of various adults in the circle can be modeled by these staff members. This same policy is then pursued as the student moves through the program, with an attempt being made to underscore for the student the fact that all of the staff members involved with him/her are trying to work in concert for his/her benefit.

One of the most direct ways in which the concept of the circle of adults is implemented is through the organization into teams. There are three teams: elementary, junior high, and senior high. Each team has representatives from each of the four components of the program (educational, mental health, residential, and medical), and is carefully coordinated so that the members of each component have regular contact. In addition to formally structured contact such as treatment planning meetings and supervisory meetings, members of the teams attempt to be available to each other on an informal basis to share important information about the progress of students. An opportunity is provided for such sharing on a regular basis in that each team meets at least 8 times per week (daily morning meetings before school begins and afternoon meetings after school 3 days per week) for 30 to 45 minutes.

Individual educational and treatment plans are designed and implemented through the mechanism of the circle of adults. These plans are drafted through the collective engagements of team members. Efforts are made to ensure that the plans reflect a consensus of opinion of the team.

Respect for the family unit. The family is the universal primary social unit (Fleck, 1980). Whittaker (1978) stresses the importance of involving, rather than isolating, the family in the treatment of seriously emotionally disturbed children and adolescents. He further suggests that effective involvement of the family raises the probability of successful treatment. Just as the parents are seen as the core of the circle of adults, the overall family unit is seen as the most central and significant part of the student's social matrix (Haley, 1979). Although a student may be in the RICA-Cheltenham program for as long as 2 or 3 years, it is acknowledged and emphasized at the outset that his/her involvement with his/her family will be, and should be, much greater and more enduring that this. Efforts are accordingly made carefully and continuously to respect the family unit, and particular emphasis is placed on the authority and dominion of the parents over their minor children. In this manner it is hoped that the family unit will be strengthened and the potential benefit to the student of his/her family bonds will thereby enhanced. Whether the student is trying to become integrated into the family unit or is trying to separate from it (in late adolescence), the ultimate significance of the family unit must continuously be acknowledged and underscored. Although this process can be complex at times (e.g., when it is unclear whom to regard as family or when the influence of the family seems, at some level, to be very destructive to the student), nevertheless the respect for the family unit is a central and critical component in the function of the RICA-Cheltenham program.

The concept of respect for the family unit is also shown quite clearly at the time of referral when the importance of having all family members attend the prescreening interview is stressed. Once again the greatest emphasis is placed on the participation of the parents. Siblings and other extended family members are also positively connoted in terms of their potential benefit for the student. Sometimes this process assumes a slightly adversarial flavor, in that certain members of the family may not wish to participate. However, such participation is pursued with an attempt being made to avoid an adversarial tone and instead, to underscore the importance of the family member. This same sort of policy is then extended to the participation of all family members in family therapy and to the participation of both parents in planning meetings, suspension conferences, and any other meetings where important decisions about the future of the student must be made.

This concept is greatly emphasized with the residential students. The decision to place a student in the residence is treated very seriously. While the student is being removed from his/her home, it is emphasized to be a temporary measure. The goal of full-time reintegration into the family unit is kept in the forefront of planning. When students enter the residence they and their families are immediately involved in designing a plan and schedule for return to day student status. Usually, this plan involves the increased frequency of family therapy meetings, and occasionally the increased participation in family therapy by extended family members.

Responsibility and choices. Strong emphasis is placed on the importance of accepting responsibility when appropriate and on making choices based on the acceptance of this responsibilty. With regard to the concept of respect for the family unit, the issue of responsibility is salient when considering the responsibility of the parents for their children. The manifestation of this concept is sometimes an open and direct acknowledgement of the responsibility that parents bear for their children and the choices they make in light of this responsibility. With regard to individual students, the issue of responsibility is seen as a developmental one. Their choices, unique to themselves, define them (Ofman, 1980). They are expected to assume increasing responsibility for their own affairs as a function of their age. Crisis intervention counseling, as well as ongoing group and individual psychotherapy, frequently revolves around the issues of responsibility and of the choices that students make in response to the options they have available to them (Glasser, 1974).

The importance of the responsibility of the parents for their minor children is underscored at the outset of the screening process. When a referral is made to RICA-Cheltenham and it is determined that it is generally an appropriate referral supported by adequate referral material, the parents are contacted and invited to meet with representatives of the staff for a prescreening meeting, as described above. They are informed that their child has been referred to the program and that they must now assume the responsibility of making formal application for admission, if they want this to occur. The program is explained to them in detail and a history is taken of the student's difficulties as well as the family's history. Then, if the parents feel that they do wish to make formal application for admission, they are presented with a document entitled, "Application Agreement for Families." This document outlines the responsibilities that the parents will be assuming if they choose to apply for the admission of their child (e.g., participation in family therapy, attending crisis meetings, attending individual educational and treatment plan conferences, continuing to provide clothing and school supplies for the student) and they are encouraged to review the implications of this decision. In signing the application agreement they are concurrently agreeing to the conditions that will be imposed upon them if their child is, in fact, accepted into the program. The attitude that parents must assume ultimate responsibility for their children is then carried on throughout the course of the student's participation at RICA-Cheltenham by carefully observing requirements for parental consent for field trips and other special events, for medical treatment, by insisting that parents assume financial responsibility for any damage of property that their child may cause, and by insisting that the parents remove the child from the program if this should be required due to grossly inappropriate behavior, medical condition, or any other such cause.

Students are constantly reminded of their responsibility for their own behavior through the implementation of a behavior management level system. This system is essentially an elaborate scheme for monitoring each student's behavior and for providing appropriate consequences for both positive and negative behavior. Each student's behavior is monitored on several dimensions during each period of the day while he/she is at school and in the residence. The tallies of these scores lead to either advancement or demotion on the level system.

The behaviors monitored fall into positive and negative domains. They were selected on the basis that they reflect behavior standards for social situations. Additionally, they have often been utilized as descriptors of behavior in referrals of students by school personnel. Four positive behaviors are designated and monitored: (a) positive interaction, (b) cooperation, (c) ignoring, and (3) the individual behavior goal. Students are given credit for having positive interactions with peers and staff. These interactions refer to friendly behavior such as saying "hello" or some other appropriate greeting, or carrying on social conversations with others. Cooperation or following adult directions quickly are also credited. Students are encouraged to ignore the distracting behavior of peers and to remain on task and are so reinforced. Every student has an individual behavior goal which emphasizes replacing a particular negative problem behavior with a positive acceptable behavior. The individual behavior goal is also monitored during each period.

There are also four negative behaviors that are considered: (a) aggression, (b) uncooperativeness, (c) out of location, and (d) distraction. Aggression refers to any verbal, physical, or intimidating behavior. Uncooperative behavior which runs counter to adult directions is also marked when it occurs. Distracting behavior which may or does take others off task, as well as oneself, is recorded. Finally, students who are away from their assigned areas, or out of location, recieve a mark in the negative column.

Students are assigned baselines of positive and negative behaviors. The combination of meeting or exceeding the positive baseline and staying under or meeting the maximum negative baseline earns the students successful days. By accumulating a specific number of successful days without receiving more than the allowed number of unsuccessful days allows the student to move to a higher level. Students see their social interaction sheets during each period and are able to keep track of their progress throughout the day. Staff are careful to let the students know when and why they are receiving particular positive or negative marks. The achievement of successful or unsuccessful days at school places the residential students on status levels to receive various levels of activities that evening. Many families have similar schedules of reinforcers at home.

All students also have their behavior monitored at home. In the context of family therapy, each family develops a set of behavioral expectations for its child. These expectations are monitored and recorded each day, and constitute a factor in the achievement of a successful day. They are communicated each day to the center as it is the child's responsibility to carry his/her sheet to home and to school.

The beginning level for each student is level 1 and the highest level that can be achieved is level 7. As the student progresses through levels by increasing the positive behaviors and decreasing the negative behaviors, he/she earns a correspondingly greater degree of freedom and greater privileges. Greater degrees of freedom include such concrete things as being allowed to move from area to area without direct supervision or to hold a job at school or off campus. Examples of privileges would be the opportunity to purchase soft drinks during the day or to attend a special event. Ultimately, progress in the level system is used as an indication of a student's readiness to move to a less restrictive environment, e.g., to leave the residence to return home and to be mainstreamed to a regular school with eventual return to a home area school. In addition to the constant presence of the monitoring of the students' behavior on the level system, students are also reminded verbally of their responsibility and the fact that they are making a choice even when they choose not to choose.

Continuity, consistency, and flexibility. Students who enter the RICA-Cheltenham program have frequently been exposed to a broad range of programs and interventions, both educational and therapeutic, before being referred to RICA-Cheltenham. Also, the family history of many of the students is somewhat chaotic. These histories may include disruptions of the actual family structure, with consequential placements in a series of temporary homes, or may reflect a chaotic type of organization and function within the single ongoing family unit. In any case, at RICA-Cheltenham it is felt that a certain degree of predictability in the students' environment will be helpful to the building of a sense of security. Continuity and consistency of structure and policy is therefore pursued to a substantial extent. However, some flexibility is also required both as a matter of optimum decision-making at any given point in time, as well as providing an example to the students of flexible or adaptive behavior (Glasser, 1975).

A number of the aspects of the structure of the program already mentioned have direct impact on the attempt to implement the concepts of continuity, consistency, and flexibility. Foremost among these is the team concept. By coordinating the efforts of the various components that make up each of the three teams it is possible to provide consistency in the approach to each student. Also, by maintaining very active communication with the family, the consistency and continuity of the approach is extended into the home environment as well. Some attempt to make this continuity direct and concrete is reflected in the manner in which students are brought to school on the buses in the morning and sent home in the afternoon. Each student's behavior is monitored by the aide on the bus and a report of this monitoring is delivered directly into the hands of a RICA-Cheltenham staff member when the bus arrives at the school and as the students are disembarking. At the end of the day a similar procedure is carried out in which a staff member is available to meet with the bus driver and the aide as the students are boarded and any important information is passed along at that time.

Although continuity and consistency are stressed, so is flexibility. Flexibility implies not only the ability to provide different specific treatment strategies for different students, but also the ability of the program to adjust to changing needs within each student. Sometimes it has not been clear at the time of the development of the initial treatment plan that a student will require a certain approach. The frequent meeting of team members provides the opportunity to update and modify treatment plans as needed. Also, an attempt is made to cultivate trust among various staff members so that a situation requiring an immediate change in treatment strategy can be handled by a staff member with the assurance that other staff members will support whatever new policy has been implemented. Discussion of such emergency interventions is then reserved for a later time when the student is not present.

Another very significant tool in implementing the concepts of continuity and consistency is the level system. This provides a standardized procedure for evaluating the behavior, both positive and negative, of each student. A set vocabulary is provided with the level system and carefully defined within it. Hence the consistency of response by staff members across the course of a day is very high since the descriptions of the behaviors are quite precise. Also continuity is very much enhanced by the level system since the system is in effect 24 hours a day and 7 days a week. The rating sheet (the Social Interaction Sheet) is sent home from school each day for the parents to review and then to make their evening ratings. The sheet is returned to the school the next day and the results of the entire previous day's ratings (including the parents' ratings in the evening) are recorded.

The ultimate expression of continuity occurs during the transition of students to less restrictive placements. A formal mainstream program exists to aide the students' reintegration into more regular placements. The program has affiliations with three local schools at which elementary, junior high, and senior high age students can spend approximately 60% of their school day.

Potential mainstream students first attend a premainstream class for a minimum of 2 weeks before entering the regular school program. During this time, activities which deal with preparation for the new experience are emphasized. Discussions are held with students who are being mainstreamed so that they may impart their experiences. A major purpose of this class is to develop a support group among the mainstreamed students so that they may discuss pertinent issues and help each other solve problems that may arise. Mainstreamed students continue in this class which is held upon their return from the mainstream school.

The class is led by one of the center's special education teachers. This teacher is responsible for liaison activities between RICA-Cheltenham and the mainstream schools. The mainstream teacher spends designated periods of time at the mainstream schools and coordinates the monitoring of the students' activities in those schools with the students' teachers and with their parents.

Students who prove successful in the mainstream experience as determined by evaluation of their academic, behavioral, and social performances are referred to their home schools by RICA-Cheltenham. A formal presentation of each student's history, progress, and needs are outlined for the receiving school. Jointly, staffs of the receiving school and RICA-Cheltenham develop an appropriate program for the student. This is done in conjunction with the student and his/her parents.

The mainstream program's success can be measured by how well its graduates have done in less restrictive educational placements. For the purposes of this discussion, a successful student has been defined as one who has been able to maintain his/her less restrictive placement for 2 school years or who has graduated with a high school diploma. Since the mainstream program began during the 1977-78 school year 76 students have participated (through the 1980-81 school year). Of these students, 61 were recommended for less restrictive educational placements; 45 (73.7%) have reached these success criteria.

SUMMARY

The RICA-Cheltenham program bases its delivery of services to seriously emotionally disturbed youth on a combination of five critical concepts: (a) positive expectations, (b) circle of adults, (c) respect for the family unit, (d) responsibility and choices, and (e) continuity, consistency, and flexibility. Through the communication of these concepts the program attempts to positively impact students and their families and to aide them to take charge of their lives, make appropriate choices, and achieve the success they desire. RICA-Cheltenham utilizes several tools to implement the concepts. Among them are its method of screening students for admission, its multidisciplinary team organization and programming, its 24-hour behavior management system, its mechanisms for family involvement and support, and its mainstream program.

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Interagency Intervention: A Case Study

Jane West-Stern

Interagency collaboration is a growing movement among service providers to the handicapped. This paper will review the legal basis for interagency collaboration, the rationale for the interagency approach, and types of interagency collaboration. Finally, an in-depth examination of obstacles encountered in an interagency intervention project for emotionally disturbed children and adolescents will illustrate problems common to interagency service delivery systems.

LEGAL BACKGROUND

Public Law 94-142 is the first significant federal public policy concerned with the education of the handicapped which establishes a legal and mandatory base for interagency collaboration. Two of the law's mandates necessitated the development of interagency relationships: a requirement that related services be provided to handicapped children, and a single-line-of-responsibility mandate for the provision of all services. Under the related services mandate, agencies other than educational agencies may provide services (i.e., counseling, speech therapy, physical therapy) to special education students; the single-line-of-responsibility mandate holds the State Educational Agency responsible for insuring that the child's special education and related needs are met. While the State Educational Agency need not directly provide all services, it insures that the child receives the required services.

These mandates provided the impetus for interagency agreements among agencies serving the handicapped. Such agreements have been developed among agencies serving the behaviorally disordered in 90% of the states (Grosenick & Huntze, 1980a).

In Maryland the Special Education Bylaw mandates interagency coordination for the planning and implementation of programs for the handicapped (*Programs for Handicapped Children*, 1978). Even prior to this law Maryland has demonstrated a history of activity in interagency functioning. In 1973, two years prior to the passage of P.L. 94-142, Maryland established its own legislation to guarantee handicapped children an appropriate free public education. In 1975 the governor appointed a special commission to determine the various roles of state and local agencies in implementing the Special Education Bylaw. Two reports

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issued by this commission made specific recommendations for structuring interagency collaboration.

RATIONALE FOR THE INTERAGENCY APPROACH

Interagency collaboration and service delivery among agencies and disciplines serving the handicapped is required by increased specialization; as professional specialization intensifies, so does the need for coordinating specialized services (Martinson, 1982). Service fragmentation prior to the passage of P.L. 94-142 had reached such magnitude that it was recognized as a serious problem during the congressional debates which preceded the passage of this law (*Education of Handicapped Children: Implementation of Part B of the Education of the Handicapped Act, Rules and Regulations*, 1977).

The rationale for interagency intervention is based on the assumption that several agencies working together can meet the needs of handicapped clients more effectively and efficiently than agencies working independently. By combining resources and expertise, the attainment of common goals will be more feasible. Duplication of services and destructive competition for resources can be minimized so that a comprehensive cost-effective continium of services is available. While this rationale is widely accepted, instances of successful interagency collaboration are few, and interagency service delivery systems are rare (Hodge, 1981).

TYPES OF INTERAGENCY COLLABORATION

Interagency collaboration can occur on the federal, the state, and the local levels. At the federal and state levels, interagency collaboration involves coordination of mandates, regulations, and procedures so that conflict and duplication are minimized. Interagency intervention is a specific form of collaboration employed when agencies are involved in the direct delivery of services. Typically, collaboration occurs on the federal and state levels; intervention occurs on the local level.

In Maryland three state agencies administer services to the handicapped: The Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, The Department of Human Resources, and The Maryland State Department of Education. These agencies have developed a model interagency coordinating system for implementation at state and local levels. The chief coordinating mechanism is a series of multiagency committees which plan, coordinate, and monitor services for handicapped individuals in their jurisdictions. Of particular interest to the State Coordination Committee on Services to Handicapped Children are severely emotionally handicapped adolescents, the largest group of handicapped students placed in nonpublic and out-of-state facilities (1980).

While state level interagency agreements are one indicator of interagency collaboration, the efficacy of the cooperation is tested at the local level where implementation takes place. The Cheltenham Project, to be discussed here, illustrates some of the difficulties encountered by interagency intervention endeavors.

BACKGROUND OF THE CHELTENHAM PROJECT

The Cheltenham Project was developed ovre a number of years through planning efforts at state and local levels. The Coordinator of Services to the Handicapped in Prince George County, Maryland generated support from officials in the Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, the Department of Human Resources, the Maryland State Department of Education, and the Governor's Office. At the local level an interagency subcommittee on the needs of the seriously emotionally disturbed articulated the principles which were later developed into the *Prospectus for the Cheltenham Center Project.*

In June 1975, with preliminary support from key participating agencies, the Governor issued an Executive Order mandating an interagency agreement to implement the proposed program. A surprise aspect of the Executive Order was an expansion of the service area to include three relatively rural counties adjacent to Prince George County in which the planning and lobbying had occurred.

In September 1975 a project director was hired under a joint agreement between the two principal agencies: The Department of Health and Mental Hygiene (DHMH) and the Prince George County Public Schools (PGCPS). In October 1975 the initial cooperative agreement establishing the program was signed by 12 participating agencies; representatives of these agencies and the State Senate and House of Delegates formed the interagency Governing Board.[1] The Governing Board was a collaborative structure utilized to coordinate agency involvement in the program.

During the planning phase several sites for the program were explored. An underutilized correctional facility administered by the Juvenile Services Administration, a subagency of DHMH, was chosen. The facility, located in the southern part of Prince George County, offered maximum access to the other three participating counties. Locating the Cheltenham Project on these grounds also allowed DHMH to operate a more cost-effective facility.

The organizational structure of the Cheltenham Project reflected the belief that participating agencies were equally responsible for serving handicapped students. Positions funded by each of the two key agencies held equal status and power within the organization. The program director was responsible to both DHMH and PGCPS, and they jointly paid his salary.

The prospectus for the Cheltenham Project outlined several possible programs with a psychoeducational residential treatment center as the initial endeavor. The Center was organized in four service components: educational, therapeutic, residential, and health. Staff from the four components were integrated into multidisciplinary teams functioning on the elementary, junior high, and senior high levels. A maximum of 80 students (40 day and 40 residential) from ages 8 to 18 could be served.

Students were originally screened for acceptance by an interagency screening committee; however, this procedure was later amended so that students were screened through the PGCPS' special education procedure in accordance with the P.L. 94-142 Rules and Regulations. All students at the Center were categorized as seriously emotionally disturbed (West-Stern, 1982).

OBSTACLES

Human service agencies are complex organizational structures with their own internal conflicts; multiagency organizations present unique and numerous obstacles to service providers. A number of obstacles encountered by the Cheltenham Project illustrate the difficulties of implementing interagency agreements.

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[1] The 12 agencies represented on the Governing Board were the Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, the Department of Human Resources, and the Maryland State Department of Education on the state level. From the local level the governments and Boards of Education of each of the four participating counties and the Prince George County Department of Health were represented.

1. *Location.* In order to establish an acceptable cost/benefit ratio many interagency programs serve a large geographical area. The Cheltenham Project serves four counties covering an area of 1,575 square miles. As a result, some day students ride the bus 3 hours per day. For the residential students, transportaton for home visits is a problem. Family attendance at therapy is sometimes poor due to the extended traveling required.

A second problem for an interagency endeavor is the housing of the treatment program. How do the agencies divide the responsibilities for the physical plant? Cheltenham Center is housed on the grounds of a juvenile detention program owned and operated by the Juvenile Services Administration (a subagency of the State Department of Health & Mental Hygiene). Aside from the difficulty of maintaining an open treatment program side-by-side with a locked detention program, the responsibility of building maintenance became a major problem. While the Juvenile Services Administration budget was expanded to include maintenance costs for the Cheltenham Project, the maintenance staff on the campus resisted the added responsibility and appeared to resent the invasion of this new program. Claims were frequently made that maintenance needs were a result of student destruction. The 50-year-old building continued to deteriorate so that heating, plumbing, and vermin infestation became ongoing problems (West-Stern, 1982).

At the administrative level the program director and the grounds superintendent exchanged memoranda with minimal results. The Governing Board discussed the problem, but had no authority to resolve it. Finally, DHMH sent out investigators who repeatedly cited the buildings for violations and threatened to close them. Minimal improvements were made until another crisis ensued.

2. *Funding.* Funding interagency intervention projects presents two obstacles: logistics, and vascillating budgets within contributing agencies. The logistics of funding the Cheltenham Project were especially complex because of the number of agencies involved. Initially, consideration was given to establishing the Cheltenham Project as a separate agency so that it could have its own budget appropriated directly from the legislature; however, this idea was dropped for lack of broad-based support. Finally, six local and state agencies were identified which contributed to the budget. By 1980 only two agencies were funding the program: the PGCPS and the Prince George County Department of Health. (The Prince George County Department of Health was funneling DHMH's contribution into the program.) The trend was for the state agencies to retreat and the local agencies to assume more responsibility.[2]

Part of DHMH's contribution was an increase in the budget of the detention center where the program was housed. Those funds were to be used for food services, some health services, housekeeping, maintenance, and minor renovations. The Juvenile Detention Center staff was to provide those services as a part of service to the total campus. Debilitating conflict over the delivery of those services developed. Final accountability proved to be elusive.

Vascillating budgets within contributing agencies was a second fund-

[2] The budget for FY 1981 including an outreach component, which has since been dismantled, totalled just under $2,000,000. DHMH was contributing $1,252,671 and PGCPS was contributing $638,778.

ing obstacle encountered by the project. IN FY 1981 DHMH's budget was cut by one-third while education's budget remained the same. Yet DHMH's mandates for service delivery remained unchanged. Lack of funds forced priorities to be shifted within DHMH, particularly since there was no comprehensive long-term state plan. DHMH was compelled to reconsider its commitment to the Cheltenham Project.

3. *Conflicting Legal Mandates and Agency Procedures.* While agencies share common goals to establish an interagency program, they also may experience conflicting legal mandates and procedures which result in administrative and programmatic problems. At Cheltenham conflict developed around the delivery of psychotherapy. The Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, which was responsible for providing therapeutic services, was required to collect fees for services rendered. The public schools, in accordance with P.L. 94-142 and the Maryland Bylaw, were required to provide the special education and related services indicated on the Individualized Educational Program (IEP) free of charge. Psychotherapy was identified as a needed service on every child's IEP at the Cheltenham Center.

No fees were charged for psychotherapy at Cheltenham Center, however this issue continued to be an ongoing area of antagonism between DHMH and PGCPS. Since the Governing Board did not have the authority to resolve the conflict, it passed the problem on up the hierarchies within the contributing agencies where it remained unresolved.

A second conflict developed between the two agencies when DHMH received increased pressure to serve court-ordered youth. Placement of these youth in Cheltenham Center would solve the problem; however, it would constitute a due process violation of P.L. 94-142's Rules and Regulations.[3] The Governing Board was unable to resolve this conflict so members initiated a dissolution of the cooperative agreement which eventually resulted in the demise of the project itself. (This will be discussed later in the article.)

4. *Turf Protection.* Turf protection is an ongoing dynamic in a multiagency organization which occurs when cooperation is replaced by competition as a primary mode of interaction. It is one of the most frequently cited problems encountered by interagency programs for the behaviorally disordered (Grosenick & Huntze, 1980b). The dynamic of turf protection influences the nature of interpersonal relationships, which is cited as the single most important factor related to the success or failure of collaborative attempts (Johnson, McLaughlin, & Christensen, 1982). The turf protection dynamic is manifested at two levels: the programmatic, and the administrative. However, the theme is the same: the establishment of superior expertise, power, and status.

At the programmatic level, the implicit struggle is revealed as "which aspect of the child's program is the most important?" The traditional rivalry between mental health and educational professionals was manifested at Cheltenham Center in expressions of resentment by the educational staff that the therapists were never available when important crises occurred. The therapists responded by enumerating their responsibilities which made it impossible for them to be available as much as they would like to be. The education staff received the message that the therapists had more important things to do and the cycle began again.

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[3] P.L. 94-142's Rules and Regulations require informed parental consent prior to placement in a Special Education program. Court-ordering of a child would usurp the parents' right to approve or disapprove placement.

The National Needs Analysis in Behavior Disorders reported that where the barriers of turf protection have been broken it was a result of committed, energetic, positive individuals (Grosenick & Huntze, 1980b). While there were many individuals at Cheltenham Center who met this description, and much energy was invested in dealing with this problem, it should be clear that turf protection is a ubiquitous dynamic and a constant obstable which is never definitively resolved and put to rest.

At the agency level the turf protection dynamic was exhibited with the recurring theme that DHMH was not reaping as many benefits from the program as the school system was. DHMH felt that the school system had more control over the program than it did, and it struggled to establish its power and equal footing.

5. *Politics.* No interagency attempt is isolated from the ebb and flow of political forces; human service agencies are extensions of the political structure. The interagency cooperative agreement which established the Cheltenham Project was the result of an Executive Order issued by a Governor who soon left office. His successor expressed little interest in the project. Without the support of the Governor's Office, the one office with jurisdiction over all participating agencies, the Cheltenham Governing Board was in a tenuous position.

The lack of sustained availability of significant actors is often a problem for interagency endeavors (Johnson, McLaughlin, & Christensen, 1982). In the case of the Cheltenham Project, changes in key positions affected interagency functioning. The person who was State Superintendent of Schools at the time the Cheltenham Project was initiated soon left that position. The Assistant Secretary of DHMH, who assumed his position after the formulation of the Cheltenham Project, was skeptical of the undertaking. The director of the Governor's Office of Coordination of Services to the Handicapped, who was the key actor in generating initial interagency support and involvement, left that position in 1980. All of these shifts in significant persons resulted in a deterioration of the initial impetus and commitment for the Project.

THE BREAKDOWN

DHMH's budget was cut by one-third at the same time it was being pressured to increase services for court-ordered youth. The school system agreed to admit court-ordered youth to the Cheltenham Project on one condition: DHMH would have to contribute more funds so a self-contained program could be established. DHMH wanted the court-ordered program to be developed from existing funds.

Finally DHMH delivered an ultimatum. If court-ordered youth were not accepted into the program, funds would be withheld. In response to the ultimatum the school system withdrew from the cooperative agreement. DHMH then issued a "Request for Proposals" in an attempt to contract out its portion of the program.

Because the school system believed that DHMH was reneging on its commitment and attempting to dodge its responsibility by issuing a "Request for Proposals," the chairperson of the school board initiated the introduction of legislation in the Maryland House of Delegates. The legislation, which was adopted, mandated DHMH to provide services comparable to the services it provided in a similar program in the wealthiest county in the state. DHMH was ordered to contract with PGCPS to provide the educational services. Implicit in this mandate was the demise of the original cooperative effort which was jointly administered by the two key agencies, and a return to a more traditional interagency approach where one agency is the superordinate and the other agency is the subordinate.

The issue of how to provide service to court-ordered adolescents from Prince George County was temporarily resolved when the Governor ordered those students to be served in another county for a period of 2 years.

PGCPS committed itself to the program for one year; however, it is considering alternative sites for establishing its own separate treatment center in the future.

DISCUSSION

The dilemma which the Cheltenham Project illustrates is encountered when agencies collaborate and in essence, create a third agency. The final authority and responsibility for that third agency rests cooperatively in the hands of the parent agencies. The interagency agreement demands that parent agencies relinquish some of their control, but none of their responsibility. The parent agencies are expected to retain their interagency commitment and continue to respond to changing internal needs. Such demands on an agency may be unrealistic and overwhelming. Without a mandate from a higher authority (such as Legislature, or the Governor) the parent agencies have limited capability for conflict resolution.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

While the rationale for interagency intervention is widely accepted, little quantitative data is available to support the approach. The major reason for this lack of data is the dearth of interagency collaboration in service delivery to handicapped students. If more interagency endeavors are established, then perhaps a database would be available so that the following key questions could be addressed:

1. Does interagency intervention offer a more cost-effective means of service delivery than the traditional single agency service delivery model?
2. Are the needs of clients met more effectively when an interagency service delivery model is employed, as opposed to when a traditional model is employed?

One can only speculate about how current trends of federal deregulation, defunding, and deprioritizing of social programs will affect interagency intervention attempts. It has been suggested that during periods of fiscal austerity agencies may be motivated to cooperate in order to more effectively compete for resources (Martinson, 1982). This observation would predict greater interagency functioning as human services agencies unite to compete for tax dollars against nonhuman service agencies, such as defense.

The other possible effect of shrinking federal funds and deregulation might be increased competition for resources among human service agencies and a return to the traditional single agency approach. The removal of the single-line-of-responsibility mandate and the language encouraging interagency collaboration in the proposed regulations for P.L. 94-142 (*Education of All Handicapped Children Act, Proposed Rules and Regulations,* 1982) lends support to this possibility. If the state education agency were no longer ultimately accountable for a handicapped child's program, much of the motivation for interagency collaboration would be lost. If federal legislation is the most significant pressure in causing organizational change (Rafferty, 1977), then the future of interagency intervention may be bleak.

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The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center: Multiphasic Academic/Therapeutic Program Model

Michael Tomalesky and Robert Jackson

Pinellas County, Florida, defines a severely emotionally disturbed child as a student who requires a special center program. The severely emotionally disturbed student has demonstrated an inability to function within a mainstream Emotionally Handicapped Program. The severity of their dysfunction is sufficient to preclude them from mainstream activities and provides evidence that a full school week center placement is necessary to meet the student's needs.

The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center has been under development since its inception in June of 1980. A comprehensive academic/-therapeutic program has been developed, based on several assumptions about the severely emotionally disturbed population.

1. Success in school has a high positive correlation with success in society. School provides learning experiences for students in social awareness, as well as codes of conduct and skills necessary to provide income and security in later life. Severely emotionally disturbed students are not successful in regular school. The severely emotionally disturbed student who is provided the opportunity to learn appropriate school behaviors and who achieves success in school will be better prepared for dealing with the stresses associated with daily living. The Center program focuses on teaching students school survival skills.

2. Most severely emotionally disturbed students can be returned to mainstream school programs. The Center is not a terminal education facilty but one that provides students opportuities to learn the skills necessary to survive in school. Three-year comprehensive reviews of a student's progress determine the severity of the emotional problem. Students not ready for mainstreaming would fall into two categories: (a) students who require movement to a more intensive treatment program such as a residential or hospital program; or (b) students who will never be ready for mainstreaming but continue to benefit from the Center program. Students falling within the first category would be referred to residential or hospital programs. The students falling within the second category will be constantly reviewed on a yearly basis, as well as during their three-year comprehensive reviews. Staff at the Center acknowledge

that certain students would best be served by the Center program and should not be denied the opportunity.

3. The majority of severely emotionally disturbed students are capable of learning appropriate self-control skills. Self-control is defined as an awareness of alternatives, choosing an appropriate alternative, and putting that alternative into practice. For the aggressive child, an appropriate alternative would be discussion instead of violence; and for the withdrawn or nonparticipatory student, a positive assertive statement would be an appropriate response.

The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center Multiphasic Academic/Therapeutic Model had been developed based on these assumptions. The following report is a description of this program.

CENTER PROGRAM GOALS

Two sets of goals have been established as a means of orienting program development. Goals for the Student define the areas of improvement each severely emotionally disturbed student will concentrate on during their enrollment in the Center Program. Goals for the Center Program are necessary to achieve the student goals.

Goals for the Student

1. *Adapt to school environment.* Rapid orientation of the student to the program expectations and procedures is important. Learning the schedule, teachers' names, and accepting the daily routine form are the first steps made by the student in becoming part of the program.
2. *Develop self-control skills.* Lack of appropriate self-control skills is one of the primary dysfunctions associated with the severely emotionally disturbed population. The aggressive child will develop less aggressive behavior and the withdrawn cild will develop more assertive interaction styles.
3. *Develop emotional awareness.* Each student will be provided an opportunity to learn more about themselves through interaction with peers and adults. Developing emotional awareness means understanding feelings and how to control them.
4. *Develop appropriate emotional/social skills.* One of the major goals for each student is to learn more appropriate social skills. Survival in school is measured by the student's ability to respond with accepted behaviors to stress, failure, and daily demands of peer and adult interaction. The Center Program will offer students the freedom to explore answers to their personal social and emotional problems.
5. *Expand/develop academic skills.* In association with poor social development, many severely emotionally disturbed students are further handicapped by learning disabilities. Each student will work on grade level tasks to maximize the amount of information they can learn. Although behavioral control is the essence of the Program model, academic development is still a function of the public school system and is not lost from sight in the Program model.
6. *Demonstrate goals 1-5 and mainstream.* Each student will learn sufficient survival skills and make enough academic progress to return to the mainstream program. Those students not meeting this goal will be referred to other programs more suitable to their needs.

Goals for Center Program

1. *Maintain consistent, fair, therapeutic environment.* A therapeutic milieu will be developed that constantly directs students toward the development of self-control and emotional awareness.

2. *Provide trained change agents.* The teacher as a change agent provides each student the opportunity to learn about themselves, as well as to explore alternative behavior patterns. The majority of classroom problems will be dealt with by the teacher and student in an effort to encourage self-control. The teachers do not change student behavior, but enhance opportunities for students to change their own behavior.

3. *Provide therapeutic intervention.* In conjunction with the therapeutic milieu, intervention techniques such as group and individual counseling will be utilized to uncover the psychodynamic processes of each student. In addition, group and individual counseling are means for students to explore their feelings.

4. *Provide therapeutic emotional growth experiences.* The environment of the Center will encourage student and adult interaction thereby helping students learn new and appropriate social skills. Group lessons on values and life styles will be a primary means of achieving this goal.

5. *Provide academic curriculum.* Since each student has his/her own specific learning style, as well as strengths and weaknesses, Individual Educational Plans are developed to provide students the maximum opportunities to benefit from the presentation of academic curriculum. Individualization is encouraged, although group learning is also considered important.

6. *Provide for family and community involvement.* The Center Program will involve the student's family and community resources in a concentrated effort to maximize the effects of the program on each student's emotional and academic growth.

7. *The follow-up of cases.* Assessment of the student's progress in the mainstream provides feedback for program modification. The Center Program tries not to "abandon" students once they are discharged from the program.

MULTIPHASIC ACADEMIC/THERAPEUTIC PROGRAM MODEL

The Safety Harbor Program Model is divided into six consecutive phases. Phase I Behavior Management System forms the foundation upon which the other five phases are overlayed. Each phase is designed to join with the preceding phase to build a congruent whole. Individual phases are important alone, but together address the goals for both student and program.

Phase I: Behavior Management System

The goal in Phase I is to provide a schoolwide behavior management foundation. The behavior management system is based on four major subparts.

1. *The Token System.* The Token System is based upon receiving one point for every 15 minutes of time engaged in target behavior activity. Three target behaviors are selected by the student and staff and are written on the Individual Student Point Card. Each student maintains his/her card and is issued a new one on a daily basis. The student day is divided into seven 45-minute periods and one 20-minute lunch period.

Recording of points for demonstration of each target behavior results in a maximum of 72 points per day. There are bonus points for bus behavior and completion of homework assignments. Each point card is signed by the teacher and is returned the next day with the parent's signature. Target behaviors are selected from a schoolwide list of behaviors that represent successful school conduct. Target behaviors are also individually based on a student's particular emotional dysfunction.

2. *Response Cost System.* Certain behaviors are considered to be unacceptable in both the Center and the mainstreamed school. Behaviors including threatening or attacking other students or staff members, destroying school property or personal property, inappropriate language, and initiating conflicts are believed to be negative behaviors which are universally unacceptable. Students lose positive points when they are engaging in these and other negative behaviors. The Response Cost System allows the student to "buy back" negative points with the positive points already earned. Failure to maintain self-control is recorded through not receiving positive points for a target behavior and/or losing points for negative behavior. Buying back negative points provides the student a second chance to salvage the entire day. The second chance acknowledges that appropriate behavioral control is difficult but can be developed with the support of the program. The positive points are meaningful and can be traded for various items or activities. The school store "sells" items such as posters, paper, pencils, food snacks, and toys. In addition to tangible items, field trips and classroom projects may be purchased. Each student maintains a point "bank account" in which positive, negative, and point totals are recorded. Should a class plan a field trip requiring 300 points, the teacher will help each student save points in the bank account. The student is helped to learn to delay immediate gratification for future rewards through this process.

3. *Level System.* The student progress in mastering target behaviors leads to consideration for movement from the most restrictive to the least restrictive level. The Center utilizes a three-level system: Level Three is considered the most restrictive and beginning level for each new student. Level Three students are escorted by an adult whenever they are out of the classroom. Trips to the bathroom and lunchroom are total class activities. Students also have relatively few freedoms within the classroom. They are seated in individual study carrels and are allowed to interact in groups through teacher-controlled activities. Level Two students have made progress in greater self-control and enter the next less restrictive level. Level Two students may do errands for the teacher, go to the bathroom by themselves on request, receive extra minutes in the lunchroom or during free time activities. The Level Two student is assigned a desk in an open area of the classroom. Level Two students are positive peer role models since they are demonstrating success at mastering target behavior and self-control skills. Level One students have few specific target behaviors. They are restricted as little as possible while functioning within the confines of universally accepted school regulations. Level One students are in preparation for mainstreaming, and role-play as many regular school behaviors as possible.

All students entering the Center are considered Level Three and have target behaviors based on their individual needs. After a minimum of 6 weeks, Level Three students who have obtained 90% of the total points for each set of target behaviors during the 7th and 8th weeks are considered eligible for movement to Level Two. The same criteria is in effect for Level Two students under consideration for movement to Level One. Level One students are eligible for trial mainstreaming in an Emotionally Handicapped Program after 8 weeks of success on Level One.

Students who have difficulty maintaining Level One or Level Two behaviors are lowered to the next level. Students return to the upper level through a contractural arrangement with the teacher. The time frame for return to the upper level is spelled out in the contract. The level system is designed to give students a tangible goal that remains flexible enough to compensate for student failure to maintain behavioral expectations.

4. *Program Alternative Room.* When a child's problem cannot be dealt with in the classroom, the Program Alternative Room is brought into use. The PA Room is an empty classroom to which the student and teacher may go to discuss classroom problems. The PA Room serves as an alternative to the classroom as a place for the student to act out and process emotions with an adult. Rapid return of the student to the classroom is the goal of the use of the PA Room. Teachers as change agents help the student to adjust to the stresses of school and classroom. The PA Room offers a quiet place for this process to occur and is not used as a punishment or timeout period.

A full-time behavior specialist monitors the behavior management system, as well as serving as a consultant to the teachers and aides. All support staff are also resources to the teacher who may need assistance during a session with a pupil experiencing difficulties.

Phase II: Affective Intervention

The goal of Phase II is to reduce the escalation of a student's problem or emotional condition into a crisis incident. The teacher is constantly supported in developing a positive rapport with each student. The teacher and student deal with problems through emotive counseling techniques and avoid the need for physical restraint. The teacher constantly develops affective intervention skills through ongoing in-service activities. Inservice training such as Transactional Analysis and other types of communication and counseling skills are provided by the support staff. Outside consultants and/or representatives of various community programs are also invited to orient staff to affective intervention ideas.

Phase III: Academic Curriculum

The goal of Phase III is to provide each child material and instruction based on individual needs and skills. Information gained by psychological evaluation, teacher evaluation, and group testing provides information for the development of individual academic educational plans. The main concern of Phase Three is cognitive and academic skills development. In addition to academic tasks, middle and high school grade students rotate through a Home Economic sequence. Cooking, sewing, house care, hygiene, and care of clothes form part of the vocational experience. Agricultural facilities are also available to each teacher. Many classes engage in growing vegetables and/or small house plants.

Phase IV: Therapeutic Intervention

The goal of Phase IV is to provide group and individual counseling to each student. The support staff is primarily responsible for providing traditional group and individual counseling experiences for each student at the Center. Group counseling is an information gathering process, as well as an additional opportunity for small groups of students to interact in a therapeutic manner. The counseling, whether individual or group, is directed toward expanding the student's awareness of his/her emotional processes and development. No long-term psychotherapy is attempted. Counseling relies on the group process to provide each student an opportunity to grow emotionally and socially. Self-control is gained as each student learns to anticipate his/her reactions to situations in which they once appeared to be "out of control." Many students are also clients of the mental health system. Coordination of therapeutic activities through the mental health system is a Phase VI task.

Phase V: Therapeutic Curriculum

The goal of Phase V is to enhance the social and emotional skills of students through affective education. The full-time guidance counselor is primarily responsible for the therapeutic curriculum. The counselor is scheduled regularly in each classroom and conducts classes in values clarification, exploration of feelings, and leads discussions about more appropriate behavioral alternatives in given situations. Through the use of Center developed as well as packaged guidance materials the counselor draws upon classroom group process to explore social and emotional concerns. Group counseling and guidance lessons are a part of the daily schedule.

Phase VI: Additional Services

The goal of Phase VI is to enhance the overall effectiveness of the program by utilizing special resources to accomplish objectives. The multiphasic program concept is a process of building a program on interlocking phases, each addressing a specific function. The Behavior Management System forms the foundation upon which the multiphasic program is built. Phase VI is the capstone of the multiphasic program in which community services, psychiatric consultation, case follow-up, parent involvement, and general administrative services are pulled together to enhance the overall affectiveness of the program. Community involvement with mental health providers as well as community action groups broadens the scope of the Center Program and brings the "world" to the student. The school coordinates mental health services through ongoing contact with the mental health case-managers.

The School Advisory Committee provides parents a meaningful way to help their child by impacting upon the development of the Center Program. Outreach services to parents and families are also provided by the full-time School Social Worker. Home visits and regularly scheduled telephone updates keep parents informed of their child's progress.

SPECIAL CENTER ACTIVITIES

Many SED students are reluctant to take risks in new situations. They have been reinforced in the past for choosing the same type of negative alternatives to deal with stressful situations. The Center Program helps students learn and choose new alternative behaviors and achieve a higher level of self-control. One of the unique characteristics of the Center Program is that the staff is willing to take risks along with the student as a means of helping students to grow in self-control and emotional awareness. At least one major field trip occurs during the course of the school year. Trips to wilderness camps have been opportunities for staff and students to interact in an environment very unlike that of the classroom. These types of excursions have proven to be very beneficial in establishing better student and staff rapport, as well as forcing students to seek new alternative behaviors while taking emotional risks.

Classes also make trips to local businesses, fairs, and community activities. Classes studying foreign countries, for example, may prepare food dishes associated with a given country. Buying and preparing the food is a study in group dynamics. The class then serves the food to invited guests. Th[illegible]ocess highlights proper manners and social etiquette.

Sports activities that comprise the full-time physical education program have been extended beyond the normal curriculum. Basketball games with other schools provide students the opportunity to learn self-control in competition as well as sportsmanship with unfamiliar players.

SUMMARY

The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center Program has gone through numerous revisions during its development. The Multiphasic Academic/Therapeutic Program Model goals are stated in general terms to allow specific details to be worked out as information is gathered during operation. Each staff member provides feedback used to improve the program. The Safety Harbor Exceptional Student Center Program is dedicated to helping the severely emotionally disturbed student learn self-control, emotional awareness, new academic material, and school survival skills. The program is constantly underoing modification to better achieve these objectives.

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A Program for Prevocational Instruction for Adolescents with Severe Behavorial Disorders

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing concern over the absence of prevocational programs for behaviorally disordered adolescents. Although the literature reflects a recent interest in secondary programs, limited information is available to guide the development of service delivery systems. This article presents a detailed description of an integrated program that includes functional life-related academics, social skills training, and both simulated and actual time-limited work experiences for severely behaviorally disordered youngsters.

Recently there has been a tremendous surge of interest in secondary level programs for behaviorally disordered adolescents (e.g., Brown, McDowell, & Smith, 1981; McDowell & Brown, 1978; Mesinger, 1977; Nelson & Kauffman, 1977). For years, secondary programs have tended to emphasize skills required to function successfully at the college level (McDowell & Murphy, 1979). Much of the literature that pertains to alternative programs for the behaviorally disordered remains mere rhetoric, not yet in actual practice to guide the development of service delivery models (Kauffman, 1977). And yet, if these youth are to be successfully integrated into the community, instruction must be geared toward providing functional learning experiences. Many BD adolescents not only need job-related training but also need instruction in skills necessary to sustain positive interactions with co-workers, supervisors, and the public (e.g., Adams, Strain, Salzburg, & Levy, 1979). Unfortunately, even with the growing number of educational programs available for this population, training practices are rarely presented in a way that encourages widespread replication and evaluation (Nelson & Kauffman, 1977). What follows, therefore, is a discussion of components that together represent a prevocational program conducted in a psychiatric setting for severely behaviorally disordered adolescents.

Participants and Setting

Youngsters participating in the prevocational program range in age from 15 to 17 years. Problems leading to residential placement include aggressive acting-out behavior, immature withdrawn behavior, self-injurious behavior, theft, chronic disruption or school avoidance, sexual acting-

TABLE 1
Overview of Prevocational Program

ENTRY	**Phase I**	**Phase II**		EXIT
	General Remedial Education Sequence	Related Educational Sequence	Public School VocEducational Placement	Discharge
— Evaluation — Develop IEP — Orientation	(see Table 3)			
	PreVocational (General)	PreVocational (Specific)	Workstudy Program	Secondary Vocational Training or Community Employment
	(see Table 4)		Community Employment	
	Adaptive Social Skills Sequence (see Table 2)			
	Reintegration into a Regular Educational Program			

Adapted from McDowell & Brown, 1978

out, runaway, and other delinquency status offenses. Participants evidence pronounced academic retardation in relationship to intellectual ability.

The prevocational program is conducted in the campus school of a residential psychiatric facility located in Leesburg, Virginia. The program staff consists of a certified special education teacher, teacher's aide, and dietary, maintenance, and woodshop personnel.

Program Description

A significant body of information is available regarding educational services for elementary-aged children exhibiting a wide range of emotional/-behavioral disorders (e.g., Hewett, 1968; Kauffman, 1977; Long, Morse, & Newman, 1976). Less is known about the content and instructional procedures associated with appropriate education for the seriously disturbed adolescent (e.g., Brown et al., 1981; McDowell & Murphy, 1979). The relevance of most traditional curricula in meeting the needs of secondary-level youngsters has been seriously questioned (Nelson & Kauffman, 1977). In that a number of behaviorally disordered adolescents will be judged on vocational (rather than academic) skills (Adams et al., 1979), the prevocational program to be discussed is comprised of three major components: (a) academic-remedial curriculum, (b) social skills curriculum, and (c) prevocational training/work experience (see Table 1).

In each of the components, instruction is based on emerging principles of educational technology applied to promoting a functional link between learner capabilities and the projected demands of community employment. Precisely, instructional activities are organized according to (a) entry-level skills of participants, (b) subskill sequencing of learning experiences, (c) criterion level of desired performance, (d) multiple evaluation procedures, and (e) remediation exercises as needed. Finally, instruction is geared toward promoting the principle of appropriate practice (Kerr & Gable, 1977). That is, training is arranged so that participants are called upon to repeatedly demonstrate mastery of selected skills in as close proximity to real life application as possible.

Academic-Remedial Curriculum

The academic curriculum reflects both a special class curriculum and one devised to provide specific academic-remedial instruction in areas deemed essential to future vocational success; e.g., computational math, reading comprehension, spelling, and handwriting. For example, functional math skills are paired with language-arts skills that, in turn, are correlated with instruction found in most units of prevocational training. In this manner, high frequency behavior such as "proficiency in making change" is emphasized (see Table 2). Concurrently, sight-word exercises devoted to vocabulary building in the use of coin-operated machines, pay telephones, public transportation, and food stores, for instance, are provided. Instructional units integrated in a similar manner include community living, personal hygiene and health, and money management. In order to enhance the usefulness of instruction, multiple variables incorporated into each major unit of instruction include (a) topography of response, (b) setting(s) exhibited, (c) acceptability criterion, (d) measurement/evaluation procedures, and (e) intervention strategies.

During initial stages of instruction, competencies related to overall

TABLE 2

Sample Social Skills Curriculum

Topography of Behavior	Setting(s) Exhibited	Acceptability Criterion	Measurement Method(s)	Intervention
I. *Greeting Friends:* a. Saying "hello" b. Saying person's name c. Asking about a person's health d. Shaking hands e. Saying goodbye f. Appropriate affect accompanying about	School, home, public location	All elements (a-f) of *Greeting Friends* exhibited in proper order three consecutive times across each setting. Weekly follow-up probes.	Direct observation self-monitoring	Role-play, rehearsal, *invivo* practice, video-models of appropriate behavior.
II. *Requesting Help/ Directions* a. Raising hand and waiting for recognition (school) b. Requests for help (verbal) understand	School, home, public location	All elements and subparts exhibited in proer sequence three times across each setting. Weekly follow-up probes.	Direct observation self-monitoring	Role-play, rehearsal, *invivo* practice, video-models of appropriate behavior

employability are introduced and serve as a foundation for subsequent teaching in a variety of prevocational areas. A detailed analysis of subskills which together comprise employment competency (for instance, in a food store or day care center) is developed and validated *in situ* through direct observation either by the instructor or students themselves. Then, community employers (such as a day care center director) are engaged in assessing the appropriateness of instructional units. In this way, the academic curriculum is designed to offer program participants functional, life-related skills. Finally, participants are evaluated daily according to the following:

1. *Academic involvement.* Amount of participation (the appropriateness of which is linked to the format of instruction and desired response), and oral recitation or written responses, with two or fewer verbal prompts required to maintain specified responses during that segment of instruction.
2. *Work quality and attitude.* Amount of work completed with at least 90% accuracy, attentiveness to mastering familiar material and acquiring new knowledge or skills, and the absence of negative verbal statements about instructional or mode of presentation by instructor(s).
3. *Self-maintenance.* Arrival at the scheduled time and place; obtaining materials required for appropriately engaging in learning tasks (e.g., gets work folder from distribution area); submission of completed assignments according to routine; and following daily schedule of modified curricular instruction (see Gable & Strain, 1981).

Social Skills Curriculum

An ample body of evidence to show that failure of disturbed adolescents job-related placements is often directly linked to poor social-interpersonal skills has accumulated (Adams et al., 1979; Kauffman, 1977). The purpose of the social skills curriculum is to assist student in developing successful and appropriate social interactions with others. For many youngsters, a major goal is to exercise greater self-control; for others, the focus is on initiating and sustaining acceptable social behavior in a work-related situation. Although many behaviorally disordered adolescents possess a range of social skills, they sometimes either fail to initiate such behavior or are unable to discriminate when such responses are acceptable. Additional instruction in this area consists of discrimination training by repeated practice of prosocial initiations across persons and settings. On an individual basis, youngsters evidencing either behavioral excesses or deficiencies receive training intended to minimize problems that would otherwise adversely effect employment success. A variety of procedures — role playing, simulation, systematic desensitization, modeling — lend themselves to this area of instruction with this population of youngsters, and have been effectively documented (e.g., Warrenfeltz, Kelly, Salzberg, Beegle, Levy, Adams, & Crouse, 1981). Social-interpersonal goals which pertain to simulated or actual work-related experiences and serve as the basis for daily evaluation are:

1. *Follows directions:* Promptly complies to adult requests or appropriately responds to direct interrogative statements.
2. *Appropriate language:* Initiates appropriate comments in classroom/work setting and refrains from disruptive verbalizations, or otherwise unacceptable language.
3. *Interactions with peers:* Initiates appropriate interactions and

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TABLE 3

Sample Academic Curriculum

Topography of Behavior	Setting(s) Exhibited	Acceptability Criterion	Measurement Methods	Interventions
I. Sales Clerk Math Items (beginning level) a. List value and equivalent coins of different amounts of money	School (seat-work) School (workshop)	100% correct for three consecutive days. Weekly follow-up (100%)	Direct observation of verbally expressed orders, and equivalents and counting. Permanent product of written equivalents and counting sequence.	a) Didactic presentation of values and equivalents. b) Group oral identification of values and counting. c) Drill and seat-work on values, equivalents and counting. d) Identifying values, equivalents and counting with play money

TABLE 4
Sample Prevocational Curriculum

Topography of Behavior	Setting(s) Exhibited	Acceptability Criterion	Measurement Method(s)	Inverventions
I. Generic Prevocational a. Arrive on time b. Leave on time c. Start work immediately d. Sign in e. Sign out f. Task behavior 1. Work 30 minutes 2. Talk about task at hand 3. Remain with assigned task 4. Leave with permission 5. Respond to instructor 6. Finish task in allotted time g. Co-worker interaction 1. Talk in pleasant tones 2. Factual statements 3. Give feedback/approval h. Customer interaction 1. Offering assistance 2. Providing information 3. Talk in pleasant tones 4. Get assistance from supervisor	School (workshop)	80% (4 of 5 days) performance of each behavior (a-h) every week enrolled	Direct observation self-monitoring and videotapes	a) Written performance contract b) Model videotapes c) Role-playing d) Peer-feedback
II. Sales Clerk-Cash Register Unit a. Identify and define decimal and columbus	School (workshop)	100% performance on each item for three consecutive trials across three consecutive days.	Direct observation of students Permanent product from register.	a) Didactic presentation and demonstration b) Group oral and worksheets

responses to peer(s) in a manner which conveys acceptance and respects rights and belongings of others.

4. *Interactions with adults:* Initiates appropriate interactions and responds to adults in a manner intended to demonstrate compliance.

5. *Self-control:* Self-regulates verbal and motor responses directed to peers or adults — that is, refrains from negative behavior and participates in maintaining the physical setting in its desired state.

Prevocational Curriculum

The final component of the prevocational program emphasizes concepts associated with the world-of-work by means of either simulated or time-limited work experience. Job-related behavior such as cooperativeness, attitude toward constructive criticism, job performance, attendance, and punctuality are emphasized.

Instructional modules are arranged so that students have ample opportunity to engage in behavior closely aligned with the task of mastering selected employment-related activities, ranging from seeking employment opportunities to actual work expriences. For example, exercises have been developed which include: (a) using classified ads, (b) using telephone directories, (c) completing accurately and legibly multiple application forms, and (d) engaging in multiple simulated job interviews (McGee, 1981).

Rather than introducing occupational alternatives solely by means of discussion (an instructional approach shown to be less than optional), an extended period of time is afforded youngsters to perform tasks in order to acquire and demonstrate general job-related social and/or functional academic skills, and to become aware of the expectations of specific jobs. For example, students participating in a carpentry module engage in pre-assessment exercises, then in both didactic instruction and field application of skills associated with carpentry. Once students have attained mastery of required skills, they are placed in an intensified work experience. That is, for a 5- to 20-day period, opportunity is provided to repeatedly demonstrate newly acquired skills in an applied situation (the center's woodshop). Instructional units have been devised or adapted (see Adams et al., 1979) for the occupations of carpenter, kitchen/restaurant worker, maintenance assistant, child care aide, and clerk. Each unit calls for instruction in (a) vocabulary and terminology, (b) equipment and tool identification and usage, and (c) the mastery of the subskills of motor and verbal responses which together represent basic competency. It should be pointed out that the aim is not to produce a master carpenter but rather to develop concepts associated with a range of employment opportunities.

Ultimately, the training process leads to actual time-limited work experiences offered by the facility and the community. More precisely, one or more of the following forms of employment can be matched to a participant's interests and capabilities:

1. Center-sponsored on-grounds employment in dietary maintenance, and carpentry sections
2. CETA-sponsored, on-grounds or community-based employment (highway maintenance, instructional aide)
3. Voluntary placement in community-based preschool program for handicapped children

4. Community-based employment in markets, fast food restaurants, and other businesses.

Participant Evaluation

Participant evaluation occurs on a continuous basis and consists of the multiple administration of both standardized and informal instruments. More precisely, standardized achievement tests, criterion-referenced assessments, direct observation, and consumer evaluation procedures are applied to each aspect of the training program. First, administering of a standardized test (i.e., *California Achievement Test)* on a pre- and post-test arrangement, yields grade equivalent scores requested by the public school sector upon discharge. Second, performance of participants is linked to each subskill objective introduced, not only in the academic-remedial but also the social skills curriculum. This is accomplished by a series of criterion-referenced measures. Skills that present difficulty are singled out for repeated instruction; those mastered are dropped. Third, a series of direct observation protocols are employed to record and systematically assess behavior exhibited in simulated and real-life work experiences. Finally, work-site evaluation in the form of checklists and observations completed by employers is supplemented through administration of structured supervisory interviews. In this way, skill deficiencies can be corrected through the introduction of intensified remedial instruction coupled with practice and feedback exercises. By maintaining the evaluation process across time and settings, it is possible to determine not only the success with which job-related skills are transferred, but also their durability in various work situations.

Formative evaluation at the conclusion of the first year of operation suggests that participants (a) showed academic gains of from 1.1 to 3.4 years in selected curricular areas (as measured by the *California Achievement Test)*, (b) maintained an acceptable level of work performance and behavior in 94% (31 of 33) of the placements, and (c) obtained satisfactory evaluations for employment in 100% (3 of 3) of community placements. Of the three youth discharged at the conclusion of the spring term, one was enrolled in the Job Corps and another scheduled for further vocational-technical training.

In a different vein, anecdotal reports maintained daily in both the prevocational and residential programs showed that participants evidenced more age-appropriate behavior and responsibility for physical appearance and personal property. And, 9 of 13 youth attained improved ratings on a facilitywide, four-level evaluation program. Insufficient data were obtained to establish a functional link between the prevocational program and improved participants' performance. Still, in recognition of the situation-specific quality of disordered behavior (Gable & Strain, 1981), gains evidenced across clinically-significant settings are encouraging.

CONCLUSION

There is ample support for the opinion that the development, implementation, and evaluation of programs designed to promote vocational adjustment (e.g., Nelson & Kauffman, 1977) should be a major priority for behaviorally disordered adolescents. While programs for the mentally and multiply handicapped have been widely investigated, an empirical base for secondary programming for behaviorally disordered youngsters in the area of vocational adjustment remains scant. Still, a multifaceted approach which not only takes into account a range of instructional needs but also the principle of appropriate practice appears worthy of more rigorous investigation.

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Multidisciplinary Approach to Rural Service Delivery: A Transactional Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Rural school districts face a singularly difficult set of circumstances when they attempt to provide special services for those students experiencing emotional/behavioral disorders. Traditional views and traditional service delivery models may not be functional in these settings. What may be functional is the establishment and full utilization of multidisciplinary teams. It is advised that these teams be ecological in philosophy and transactional in function. The multidisciplinary team effort is considered to be a beginning step in exploring more appropriate modes of addressing educational problems in rural areas.

There are 1,000,000 students in American schools who may be in need of special education because of their involvement in behavioral/emotional conflicts with others, yet 75% of them are receiving no services except that which their regular classroom teachers can provide (Grosenick & Huntze, 1979). A commonly stated explanation for this situation is that discrepancies exist between the extent to which urban and rural school districts and co-ops serve emotionally/behaviorally disordered (E/BD) students, with urban districts serving at or near the generally accepted 2% incidence figure while rural districts serve virtually no "officially" identified behaviorally disordered children and youth.

Rural districts comprise two-thirds (67%) of the nation's 16,000 pupils school education agencies (Sher, 1978). Efficacious special education programs are difficult to establish under any conditions; they are particularly difficult to establish and maintain in rural areas which suffer from shortages of specialized personnel, lack of adjunctive human services, and organizational difficulties (Helge, 1981). Even though there is very little research on this situation, one study by Beare and Lynch (1983) reported a large difference in the quantity and comprehensiveness of service between rural and urban districts in three states they surveyed. They found that fewer rural than urban districts offered E/BD services — 69% versus 95% of the urban districts. Rural districts that did offer such services offered fewer levels of service in the form of different placements; the average urban district providing two options while rural district offered one. Alternative service models (other than self-contained or resource rooms) were present in only 15% of the rural districts, while they were present in 34% of the urban areas. The lack of an ED license by teachers primarily responsible for providing services to behaviorally disordered students was a major problem for rural areas. Only 26% of the rural districts reported that an ED license was held by those employed as compared to 63% for the urban districts.

We might well conclude from this that traditional educational service models are apparently not being carried out in rural districts. This is aside from the issue of the efficacy of such models in rural areas. There is a nationwide lack of personpower for such services with a range of 6% to 90% of the needed teachers available depending on the state reviewed (Grosenick & Huntze, 1980). It is impractical, even if there were personnel, to suggest a cascade of services for rural districts that must combine to accumulate enough students to form self-contained classes or categorical resource rooms. Rural travel distances are too great. Other traditional service delivery systems also may not be feasible. Alternative high schools cannot develop where the regular high school has 50 to 100 students. Medical Model services are impractical, as often there are no therapists or adjunctive personnel in such areas (Sher, 1978).

There are estimated to be 750,000 unserved students. Attempting to implement traditional service delivery systems, particularly in rural areas, is analogous to ladeling a continually filling, overflowing bucket with a sieve. It is difficult to believe that we will catch up with the problem through labeling and placement. Like the water, this never looks at the source — the spigot — to shut it off.

Traditional approaches produce other thoughts concerning services in rural areas. Many E/BD students are isolated and feel remote from others. Rural teachers of these students might well be said to feel the same way. The usual lack of a continuum of services places them in the position of providing service as individuals, not as part of a team. This very lack of service continuum makes logical a high degree of interagency cooperation (when possible) and interpersonal cooperation. Cooperating personnel might not be able to supply all needed service if they follow the traditionally conceived roles. Behavioral disorders as a field should rely heavily on nonpublic school facilities, professionals, and paraprofessionals to fill needed roles regardless of the specific training such persons might have received in the past. Grosenick and Huntze (1980) report that between 39,000 and 50,000 disturbed students are served in nonschool facilities but that collaborative effort between the schools and the public agencies appears to be minimal. It would seem likely that E/BD students need multidisciplinary services to a higher degree than less impaired children and youth. These E/BD children, by the nature of their disorder, are likely to have come into contact with multiple agencies—corrections, social services, and medical, as well as special education. There is an obvious need for interdisciplinary cooperation.

Multidisciplinary team planning, in the format we will describe, might well be one way that appropriate programming can be delivered in rural areas—or urban areas for that matter. For this to fully develop, however, we must examine the purpose, use, and actions of these teams.

TEAM BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

The use of teams in schools today seems to be prosaic. Typically these teams appear to be very conventional, patterned after the child guidance teams of the 1920s, with the members meeting periodically to tell each other what they have done. Maximum and most appropriate utilization of sparse resources in rural areas might be accomplished best with other models, and with more collaborative multidisciplinary team approaches. In order to do this, a shift in thinking is needed — a paradigm shift — "as though one were transported to a new planet" (Kuhn, 1970).

As a start in our exploration of a paradigm shift (conventional team approaches are questioned), we will briefly discuss the rationale for an alternative approach and its applications. The multidisciplinary effort grew out of two major concerns: (a) the concept of E/BD (and other diagnostic classifications) as an intrapsychic or self-action phenomena is questionable; and (b) that concept, or perspective, leads to less than adequate approaches to intervention. Hobbs (1966) noted that "We have become increasingly concerned and convinced that a major barrier to effective planning for emotionally disturbed children is the professional's enchantment with psychotherapy and individual clinical approaches. The program is complicated by apparent professional advocacy of controlling approaches to intervention that place the burden on the targeted person as being disturbed or disordered and in need of being fixed or changed. The availability of locks and drugs make children containable and the dearth of evaluative research effectively denies feedback on the advocacy of methods" (p. 1105-1106). This overcommitment to the clinical approach — individual psychotherapy, drug treatment, or behavior modification — seems to stem from an uncritical acceptance of *cure as the goal* in working with a youngster, a consequence of defining the problem as one of illness that is contained within the child. To act as though E/BD children are ill is predicated on an array of unvalidated and questionable assumptions and leads to (a) a preoccupation with the intropsychic life of people as though the behavior derives from under the skin or in their skull; (b) an easy use of drugs, behavior modification, or other controlling techniques with little knowledge of the long term effects on character development or one's life space; (c) extended isolation of children or adults from families because of their presumed contagion; (d) an unnecessary limitation of professional roles; and (e) the neglect of schooling and education. Once we abandon *cure as a goal* and define our problem as the need to help a small social system work in a reasonably satisfactory manner, there ensues an array of possible interventions that contrast sharply with controlling treatment approaches.

Children face a variety of socializing agents that often put them in conflict. Since schools tend to be disconnected from other socializing institutions, there is a need to coordinate the impact of socializing agents and other community resources to effect appropriate adaptation of children to settings. Thus, there has to be coordination among school, parents, and community groups, and support for parents in the best use of other socializing institutions such as the school, church, recreational facilities, etc. (Watson, 1967). Extending the sphere of work to the family and the community gives tacit recognition of the need to help others help themselves (Cutts, 1955).

It is suggested that cross departmental/interdisciplinary approaches to planning, teaching, research, and service will be necessary to solve education problems (Buktenica, 1981; Commission on Programs and Projects, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1978; Cutts, 1955; Wall, 1956). The transactionally oriented multidisciplinary team differs from other approaches in that the social context of the school and community is considered to be the appropriate sphere of inquiry rather than utilizing the classic case study approach. This is based on the belief that children can only be understood within a context, and that professional role definitions are less important than considering individual competencies to implement problem definition/resolution and mobilization of existing resources to more adequately address the educational and developmental needs of children (Buktenica, 1970; Dewey & Bentley, 1949; Smith & DiBacco, 1974). We assume that the child is an inseparable part of a small social system, an ecological unit made up of the child, his or her family, the school, neighborhood, and community (Hobbs, 1966).

The multidisciplinary team is an attempt to broaden the perspective of the teacher and other professionals, to assist the teacher in understanding the variety of forces that influence child behavior in the classroom, and to establish learning environments that maximize adaptation, development, and learning. This approach might have a positive effect on the teacher-pupil interaction, since teacher training characteristically provides insufficient experiences to assist teachers in understanding the social forces that influence child behavior within a classroom. Thus, teachers can be oriented to identify problems early enough to effect an adequate intervention themselves. Such a pursuit requires broadening the context and perspective of the teacher and the special service personnel.

We would like to briefly sketch the transactional rationale, which characterizes behavior as occurring at three possible levels — self-actional, interactional, or transactional. Briefly stated, self-action refers to people acting and initiating behavior under their own power; interaction is when person is balanced against person in a mutually determined, interdependent relationship (Dewey & Bentley, 1949).

Self-action level of relating is based on the assumption that people inherently possess being and continue in action under their own power. Functioning at this level, school personnel attempt to unilaterally determine and control their roles as one would from a psychoanalytic perspective.

An interactional construction of behavior is a linear cause-and-effect approach of people acting upon each other according to an "opposite and equal reaction principle." The behavioral/operant approach is an example of a linear model at the interactional level. One notes that the prevailing level of relationships among school personnel is interactional in which there is recognition and acknowledgement of another's presence and position, but there is little allowance for input into the "unalterable" characteristics of the persons involved. For example, Martin (1978) suggested that multidisciplinary efforts are most effective when the principal actors "exert considerable influence on one another," while at the same time spending much time advising and trying to persuade each other to act in a particular way.

The transactional erspective is based on the recognition that roles and behavior can only be understood in relationship to a social context, that people in a setting are interdependent, and that they have mutual impact on each other (Buktenica, 1977, 1981; Dewey & Bentley, 1949). If, as Hobbs (1975) and Reynolds (1977) suggested, we have to promote redefinition and renegotiation of roles, there will have to be movement beyond the self-actional and interactional levels of relating. Therefore, consideration of relationships among professionals in the schools must be jointly or collaboratively addressed for adequate resolution. Illustrative of the position, Thomas (1972) points out that if professionals in the schools are to move toward collaboration, team members have to engage in mutual problem definition and resolution, and enter negotiations knowing full well that each person might have to give up or alter a role-related position.

Merely meeting to discuss a child does not warrant the designation of a transactional level of relationship. For example, when a behaviorally oriented team meets to define a child/school problem, the intervention or approach to problem resolution is largely prescribed prior to definition of the problem. A team with a behavioral perspective is too limited in its scope to allow for a transactional level of functioning. On the other hand, a transactionally oriented team might regard a behavioral intervention as one of many intervention tools that might be selected from an array of theoretical options. The team at the transactional level has the latitude to accept or reject a behavioral technology on the basis of appropriateness to address needs of a given social context (e.g., classroom: child/peers/parents/teacher). On the other hand, the behaviorally oriented team has a predetermined commitment to use behavioral diagnosis and technology as the most appropriate intervention approach (Buktenica, 1981).

Within the transactional perspective, it is posited that: (a) Behavioral disorder is a context related phenomenon; (b) the relationships of special service personnel are often at the self-actional level, each going separate ways, self-initated, self-directed, defining and carrying out functions to the exclusion of the other; (c) some relationships are at the interactional level in a cause/effect, linear mode that is similar to a "billiard ball" phenomenon of opposite and equal reaction; and (d) seldom do special service personnel function at a transactional level of relating which involves problem definition and resolution, and interdependent circular response modes.

ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEAM

The combination of perceived shortcomings of usual team approaches and the transactional perspective provide a basis for exploring a different approach to service in the schools. Multidisciplinary service efforts have the potential to move regular and special educators to a transactional level of relating if they allow themselves to jointly plan, mutually define tasks and problems, collaborate on problem resolution, openly inquire into role and function, allow for a full range of options, and evolve into interdependence and mutuality (Armer & Thomas, 1978; Barden & Wenger, 1976; Buktenica, 1977, 1981; Hobbs, 1975; Miller & Buktenica, 1970; Reynolds & Birch, 1977; Thomas, 1972; Walsh, Serafica, & Bibace, 1976; Ysseldyke, 1978;). It seems that coordinated inquiry into the appropriateness of extant roles and functions has the potential for developing mutually determined patterns of response that maximize growth and development and use of resources for special needs children (Buktenica, 1981). Furthermore, a transactional perspective allows viewing and inquiring into behavior as a social phenomenon. Successful multidisciplinary effort will be contingent on leaving roles behind, in one sense, and orienting oneself to the context with the team as the reference group rather than the separate disciplines. This, of course, might require relinquishing a traditional function to a colleague in a specific instance. The approach allows team members to examine problems of the school from the combined perspective of their backgrounds, training, and professional disciplines. Students are viewed within the social context of the classroom, the family, and the community, in contrast to the more traditional notion of considering the troubled child as a self-contained entity who needs to be fixed only within himself/herself.

We acknowledged that there tend to be limited resources in rural settings. A major task of the multidisciplinary team is to identify and utilize resources that are available in the school/community. The multidisciplinary team in a rural setting has to generate integrally related team building and service goals. If these goals are not clarified, the team, school staff, and other agencies remain in conflict and function at cross purposes. The team building goals include:

(a) orientation to school and community, (b) learnig about other professions, (c) establishing ways of using the most appropriate persons (professional and paraprofessional) for particular tasks, (d) implementing research methodology that is readily incorporated into action programs, and (e) developing models for evaluating effectiveness of programs. Service goals include: (a) mobilization of parent involvement in the full range of school activities, (b) assessment of problem areas and issues, and (c) development of intervention programs that can become part of the existing structure of the school/community.

As previously stated, rural districts lack many of the normally available professional and adjunctive personnel that would be present in urban settings. Teams in rural settings must meet the team building and service goals or perhaps even disjointed services will not be offered, and the present status quo of inadequate or no service will prevail.

A team has to involve itself with many aspects of the school and community. Some examples of activities might include assessment of problems that are prototypical across classrooms, application of classroom and family analysis techniques, mobilization of parent involvement in the school, screening of perceptual abilities of kindergarten and first-grade children, small group therapeutic teaching, coordination of community agencies, and fostering communication among teachers and between teachers and parents. For example, parents of maladaptive and adaptive children are personally contacted and asked to visit the school. They are asked to help contact other parents and to serve in various capacities within the school such as supervising the school health clinic, tutoring, aiding teachers, or filling the roles of materials clerk, story teller, or clerical aide.

The transactional approach to establishing multidisciplinary teams was used in several settings representing a wide range of school populations and social contexts over a 10-year period (Buktenica, 1981). Sanction is a requisite condition for a multidisciplinary team to be established and to function adequately. This right-to-be is acquired at multiple levels from administrators, principals, teachers, and parents, and allows team members to forego traditional functions, collect formal and informal data, conduct ecological observations, determine the demographic characteristics of the community, and establish liaison with other resources in the community. A systems and community level approach begins to clarify the social parameters and expectations for determination of handicapping conditions. We believe that maladaptation and the designation of deviation are socially derived, situation specific phenomena, that are an outgrowth of the transactional process between individuals and other elements of behavioral settings (Mercer, 1975; Szasz, 1961).

We have not abandoned direct service functions, and the multidisciplinary team must have the capability of responding to crises. There are three manifestations of the crisis response that are noteworthy. First, assignment to a referral or crisis situation is done on the basis of the most appropriate person rather than assignment on the basis of professional discipline. One of the team's first tasks is a self-evaluation of individual and group competencies. If, then, a particular service is called for, the person with the appropriate set of competencies is asked by the team to pursue the matter. For example, the teacher might conduct a home visit or family conference rather than the social worker, psychologist, or counselor. The team might realize that a referral to another agency seems to be the best course and someone on the team, not necessarily the social worker, will assume the responsibility to get the family to that resource.

The second manifestation of our approach to direct service is a focus on the family. Seldom is a child seen in isolation, but rather is seen with principal members of the family in order to understand behavior through the setting —the ecology of the family. Parents and child participate in the process of problem definition and all share ownership of the problem rather than attributing the responsibility to the child as is done in more conventional approaches. The family, in turn, is then able to participate in resolution of the problem instead of being the target to be fixed or shaped.

The third manifestation of our multidisciplinary approach to crises is implementation of the continuity of care concept that grew out of the mental health legislation of the late 1950s. Many caretakers or agencies are responsible for child development or adaptation, according to the concept, with each agency contributing to the helping process in a planned and collaborative manner.

SOME PROBLEM AREAS

One of the major problems faced by the multidisciplinary team is that of engagement of the school personnel in a meaningful relationship. This problem, while a usual one, is probably more manifest with the transactional approach because of additional variance of expectation between the school and team members. The fact that the team spends time assessing needs and resources in the situation and establishing priorities before providing direct services is often a source of tension.

There is the question of feasibility of persons from a variety of disciplines working in a collaborative team context. Can persons from different fields pool their resources, work together, participate in group problem definition and resolution, work with people who have different perspectives and avoid getting "washed out" of their own discipline? Smith and DiBacco (1974) identified several problem areas that include:

1. Administrators' expectations that may conflict with purposes of the team; e.g., having skills peculiar to their particular discipline.
2. The usual problem of getting acquainted that is typical of newly formed work groups. This could be exacerbated somewhat by having multidisciplinary team, because members are asked to discuss their competencies, strengths, and weaknesses in order to determine the resources of the team and prepare for resource exchange negotiations.
3. The emphasis on not restricting one's activities to particular professional role designated behavior is a unique problem of the team. This is a source for anxiety, and potential source for discouragement. Team members might be deprived of the opportunity to exercise a skill behavior and thus not receive an expected set of reinforcements.

SOME ACCOMPLISHMENTS

An 8-year evaluation of the multidisciplinary team was attempted and the following represents some of the accomplishments in one of the settings (McShane, Clark, Rose, & Buktenica, 1977):

1. Recruited and trained parents as team members who planned and delivered services.
2. Mobilized a parent advisory committee that considered curriculum, classroom management problems, research proposals, and made recommendations for research and intervention.

3. Established a volunteer program that included parents and students from colleges, high schools, and junior high schools.

4. Developed vision and hearing screening programs carried out by parents.

5. Instituted a screening program for early identificatin of handicapped children.

6. Provided in-service training to special education teachers to enable them to become resource persons for other teachers.

7. Carried out interaction analysis in classrooms as a basis for in-service training to help teachers understand the complexities of the classroom as a learning environment.

8. Fostered communication among teachers by providing regular in-service training in human relations.

9. Conducted group counseling sessions with parents.

10. Provided consultation to the school principal regarding staff relationships, and school-parent relationships.

11. Established a walk-in rap center in which high school students counsel each other.

CONCLUSIONS

In addition to striving toward a transactional level of response to personnel preparation and service, it is suggested that training programs and schools develop multidisciplinary approaches (Buktenica, 1970, 1981; Hobbs, 1975). Special and regular educators should have the opportunities (a) to become skilled in mutual problem identification and solution, (b) to work collaboratively with other professions, (c) to jointly develop appropriate instructional programs for children in need, (d) to develop a favorable attitude toward, and commitment to, collaborative endeavors with other professionals, and (e) to be exposed to a range of theoretical options. If they can become truly interdependent working together, a more powerful aggregate service potential may be realized (Miller & Buktenica, 1970).

Implementing effective service will require multifaceted views. The transactional perspective dictates team functioning, collaboration with all elements of the educational scene — children, parents, regular and special educators, and community resources. It seems that without a consolidated effort, we will fall short of providing effective service. Rural areas with few resources must address this in particular.

A team effort is necessary for assessing strengths and weaknesses in the context in which they occur and attempting to mobilize existing resources (forces) to cope more adequately with educational needs (Buktenica, 1970). Recognition of the resources in the setting seems to dictate multidisciplinary efforts which have the potential of preventing problems. Single assessment-single intervention is tantamount to continually battling brush fires, never preventing problems from developing.

Educators should continue to learn from parents while at the same time learning to coordinate educational efforts and develop better means of communicating information. Separate directions, duplicated functions, resistance to cooperative planning, and refusal to evaluate efforts will jeopardize assessment and least restrictive environment planning. The success of such plannig will probably depend on the degree to which the services are coordinated and nonduplicative and are relevant to educational growth of students. The multidisciplinary team effort is considered to be a beginning step in exploring more appropriate modes of addressing educational problems. Perhaps it will evolve into a model for more effective service delivery systems in rural settings.

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Meeting the Needs of Youth from a Corrections Viewpoint

Osa D. Coffey

Recent data indicate that there are approximately .5%, or one-half, special education staff per correctional institution in the United States to serve a daily average population of some 600,000 men, women, and children, 40% (or some 240,000) of whom are believed to suffer from some kind of handicapping condition. The sad fact is that most adult inmates needing special education are not served at all; and juveniles, if they are served, receive only marginal or inadequate services. So as you see, corrections desperately needs you, your skills, your expertise.

Before I go on with my remarks, however, it is important that you understand where I come from. I am not a federal employee in the traditional sense. The Corrections Program which I have headed since its inception in December of 1980 is quite unique. Although housed in the U.S. Department of Education, it is funded by the National Institute of Corrections to provide advocacy for and render technical assistance to the field of correctional education in the broad sense. My role in the Corrections Program is that of a private consultant, so I have the luxury of being able to speak more independently, perhaps more frankly, than the typical civil servant is generally permitted to do. So what I say here reflects only my own views, so do not assume that I represent either the Administration's philosophy or U.S. Department of Education policy.

It has been pointed out that a society's degree of civilization can be measured by how it treats its least fortunate citizens — the very young and the very old, the sick and the handicapped, the victims of crime and those imprisoned for crime. It seems to me that how we treat one of our most disadvantaged groups — handicapped youngsters in correctional institutions — might well be a test of what kind of society we have and what we are. So I would like to focus my remarks here on *who* these youngsters are, what *services* are currently available to them, what some of the problems of service delivery are, and to suggest some ways in which *you* as a professional can assist the field of corrections and society in creating not only more, but more effective programs.

I for one do not believe that handicapped kids belong in prison; certainly not handicapped kids who have committed nonviolent crimes; and certainly not unless correctional insitutitions are able to provide the services mandated under P.L. 94-142. But we do have to face reality, and the reality is that at the moment we have a large number of youngsters in corrections who meet the criteria as established under that law. The current, most frequently cited

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estimate is that at least 42% of the 43,000 youngsters who on an average day are in juvenile correctional facilities suffer from some kind of handicap, the most frequent being educable mentally retarded, seriously emotionally disturbed, and specific learning disabled. At least three states have declared that their entire institutionalized juvenile delinquent population is "handicapped" using the broadest possible interpretation of P.L. 94-142. They might well be right in doing so.

As those of you who have worked in corrections know so well, the typical youngster in a correctional facility is multiply disadvantaged, usually economically deprived, more likely than not having been a victim of child abuse, with one or no parent at home. His/her record typically contains foster care placements, truancy, school failure, drug or alcohol abuse, and frequent brushes with the law. Poor self-concept, emotional problems, and poor impulse control fill out the typical picture.

Statistics and generalizations are, as someone said, only people without tears. And they are all too easy to ignore. So I would like for you to meet three youngsters whom I wish I could tell you are *not* common in correctional institutions; unfortunately they are. Two I met personally; one I have read about.

Meet Jimmy — a small, pale, undersized 10-year-old. I ran across him in a New England training school. His crimes were bedwetting and running away from home. His parents had tried to cure him of bedwetting by beating him. He had been placed in the correctional institution pending foster care placement. This had already been pending 7 months when I met him. Jimmy still wet his bed, but his institutional bed had been wet by so many others before him that no one seemed to care. Jimmy was rather happy because no one punished him for wetting his bed. What plans did they have for Jimmy? None. "We are not staffed and equipped for that kind of a kid. He should not be here."

Meet Charley, 15½ years old, a black kid from the Washington slums. He volunteered to be my tour guide to get out of the classroom where he was working on mastering the alphabet. Charley could not read or write, although he had a grade card showing that he had attended 9 years of school in D.C. One year his attendance record showed 20 days present; in the 9th grade no one seemed to know if he had been there at all. Yet he had been promoted. His guardian was an old aunt of advanced senility. She said Charley did not stay with her often. Actually, Charley lived in the streets. His crime — murder of a 17-year-old. He said "it was necessary." After 6 months in the institution Charley was still being assessed. In 2½ years, Charley will be out on the streets. Can we afford 6 months or more of assessment?

Finally, meet Steve, 17½ years old. Steve held up a bank at gunpoint, then waited for the police with bills stuffed into his pockets. He never said much to his court appointed lawyer nor to the judge. Because of the serious nature of his crime, armed robbery, and being so near 18, the judge sentenced him as an adult. Steve is now serving time in an adult prison. No one during the pretrial and presentence investigations seemed to catch on to the fact that Steve is mentally retarded, and the fact was ignored that he held up the bank with a plastic toy gun he had purchased in a dime store for $1.99.

I could have picked a lot more and different case histories, but these three should be of special concern to you. They have one thing in common; they all fall under the definition of handicapped as used in P.L. 94-142. Yet in each case, it is obvious that these kids were not receiving the services and care mandated by Congress.

Although it is by now well known that there is a disproportionately large number of handicapped youth in corrections, it is not well understood what the exact relationship is between certain kinds of handicapping conditions, such as mental retardation or learning disabilities, and crime.

Santamour and West in their studies of mentally retarded offenders point out that there are at least three times as many retarded persons in correctional institutions as in the general population. But their research also indicates that the mentally retarded are not more *prone* to criminal behavior than so-called normal people, but are more often caught, convicted, and sentenced and are less able to defend themselves adequately in court, less apt to plea bargain.

Santamour and West point out that mentally retarded offenders serve an average of 2 to 3 years longer sentences. Often failing to meet parole criteria, they have to serve out their full sentences. The reason they often fail to get parole is that they show poor progress in prison schools and usually have a lot of disciplinary infractions, commonly because they have a hard time understanding prison rules and directions by correctional guards.

If these inequities are not shocking enough, it should further be pointed out that the mentally retarded in correctional facilities are commonly victimized by fellow inmates and are more deeply and lastingly influenced by prison subcultures. Most correctional institutions have *no* special programs for the mentally retarded. They fall through the cracks.

The plight of learning disabled youths in prison is similar. In recent years, the National Institute of Justice has sponsored one of the few careful research efforts to try to understand the relationship between learning disability and crime. Earlier surveys had estimated that 10.6% of juvenile offenders suffer from specific learning disabilities as compared to only 1.5% in the general population. The earlier NIJ reports came to similar conclusions to those of Santamour — namely that learning disabled youths do not engage in more delinquent acts but are differently, more severely treated by the criminal justice system, and that this alone accounts for the higher proportion of learning disabled in correctional institutions.

However, a very recent study conducted by the National Center for State Courts comes to quite a different conclusion. It shows a significant relationship between learning disability and the commitment of delinquent acts. As compared to a control group of nonlearning-disabled youths, youngsters with this handicap committed significantly more acts of violence, theft, alcohol and marijuana abuse, and school misbehavior. This study, however, also came up with somewhat encouraging results in terms of the positive effects of specialized instructions, supporting the proposition that effective academic, vocational, and rehabilitation programs for the handicapped young offender are an investment that can reduce recidivism and welfare costs for both the state and federal government and for us, the taxpayers. The problem, of course, is that we do not have either the quantity or the quality programs needed so desperately at this time.

The two things almost all the literature on the relationship between learning disabilities, crime, and remediation strategies stress are (a) the need for a holistic, individualized approach, and (b) the crucial role played by the remediator/student interpersonal relationship. Students who had developed a strong, positive relationship with his or her special education teacher committed fewer repeat crimes. This should tell us never to underestimate the power of a good teacher!

P.L. 94-142 then, would seem tailormade to meet the special needs of the handicapped delinquent population in our juvenile correctional institutions. The intent of this law is "zero reject," and the law specifically states that handicapped children in correctional institutions are to be included. Yet the evidence shows that to date, after 7 years of experience with this act, P.L. 94-142 comes nowhere near being fully or even adequately implemented in corrections.

Why is this so? A major reason is, as a study conducted by my office a year ago indicated, that correctional agencies have found the administration of P.L. 94-142 more problematical than any other piece of federal legislation. As one respondent wrote: "Perhaps the best-intentioned program, yet the least appreciated and poorly administered, is P.L. 94-142. Written mainly for public schools, it is almost impossible to apply its provisions to a correctional institution." And finding it difficult, many correctional agencies have chosen to ignore or give only token attention to this *mandate* from the United States Congress. And the courts, although not entirely idle in this regard, have not interfered very frequently or very vigorously. As a result, our data indicate that only five states can claim full compliance with P.L. 94-142 in their correctional facilities.

But the evidence also shows that, however difficult it may be, P.L. 94-142 *can* and *has been* successfully implemented in Corrections. Exemplary programs and models *do* exist, which *can* and *must* be replicated. I believe this conference offers several workshops in this regard. But in order for this to happen, corrections needs *you*, the special educators.

Just as it is unreasonable to expect our schools to control crime, it is unreasonable to expect corrections to provide highly specialized education and other rehabilitation services. The legislators who drafted P.L. 94-142 wisely recognized this when they made the state education agency solely responsible for ensuring that every handicapped child (including those in correctional institutions) has access to a free and appropriate education.

But please do not misunderstand me. Because corrections has fumbled and stumbled with the ball, I am not trying to toss it into your court exclusively. Correctional agencies cannot be absolved from all responsibility; however, it is the primary job of corrections to protect society from offenders and the offenders from one another. And believe me, some of the so-called kids in corrections are both violent and dangerous. As a matter of fact, approximately 45% of all violent crime is currently committed by people under 20. But corrections must also be held responsible for facilitating and accommodating you so that you can do the job as mandated under P.L. 94-142. Corrections must reach out to you, just as you must reach in to the kids in prison.

The problems of implementing P.L. 94-142 in corrections are well known. (Corrections has always been good at delineating problems.) Frequently cited are:

- Shortage of trained staff
- Shortage of money
- Lack of interagency agreements and cooperation
- High turnover of population (6 month average)
- Frequent transfer of clients
- Short stay of many clients
- Lack of IEP's upon arrival
- Inadequate time, staff, and funds for required assessments
- Difficulty in locating and involving parents
- Difficulty in finding and training legally acceptable surrogate parents when needed
- Lack of continuity from school-prison-back to school

Certainly you cannot solve all these problems for corrections. But you can help corrections solve most of them. Let me suggest a few ways.

1. You hold the key to better training. Through whatever professional base you have (public schools, colleges, professional organizations, social agencies), extend your assistance to law enforcement, court, and corrections personnel to help them learn to identify handicapped offenders. Extend training opportunities to teachers in corrections (and ask them to train you in corrections).
2. Help correctional administrators understand the law and its implementation.
3. Join hands with corrections staff to demand from legislatures and SEA's the resources required to comply with the law.
4. Become expert witnesses in court if and when requested.
5. Help develop program models specifically for corrections and disseminate these through correctional professional channels as well as your own.
6. Join hands with the Correctional Education Association (CEA) by joining the CEA and invite CEA members to join your professional associations.
7. Become more activist in lobbying for needed legislation.
   (a) Comment on P.L. 94-142 before November 2 as an organization as well as individuals.
   (b) Join the CEA in actively supporting S. 2084, The Federal Correctional Education Assistance Act of 1982, introduced just a few weeks ago by Senator Pell. It would provide an additional $25 million annually for correctional education including for special education programs as defined by state law.

These are but some things you can do and we can do together.

The handicapped youngsters in our correctional institutions are among P.L. 94-142's most distressed subpopulations. But they do have one thing going for them, their youth. And we can ill afford or justify giving up on anyone whose life, however badly it began, is still mostly to come. Do not doom them to becoming the 60% of adult offenders who have juvenile records. As special educators, you are the last fair chance for these kids. Most of them do not return to school when they leave correctional institutions. No one should expect you to magically turn these multiply disadvantaged kids into Eagle Scouts with college degrees and high paying jobs. But it is your task — our tasks — to ensure that they get the needed assistance to be able to live decently, independently, lawfully, however modestly.

Corrections is famous, or rather infamous, for building walls and other barriers, even some quite unnecessary ones. The result is often that they have been more effective in keeping change agents, resources, and expertise out than in confining either dangerous inmates or the problems of crime. But we need to break through these walls by reaching in as well as reaching out.

Which reminds me of that famous poem by Robert Frost called *Mending Wall*. You probably remember it from school. Two New England farmers meet once every spring to repair the stone walls separating their properties. One of them keeps referring to the old adage: "Good fences make good neighbors." But the other one is wondering:

> Why do they make good neighbors?
> Before I build a wall I'd ask to know
> What I was walling in or walling out,
> And to whom I was like to give offense.
> Something there is that doesn't love a wall,
> That wants it down.

That something that doesn't love a wall is, of course, our common humanity.

However much we, or society, might fight the idea, we do have to recognize that handicapped, delinquent, difficult, and ornery though they may be, the youngsters in our correctional facilities are more like us than they are not, are more like our own kids than they are not. They are, for all their flaws and troubles, very much part of our human family and local communities. If we always keep that in mind, we know that we cannot afford to shut them off or let them down.

A conference such as this should not be only a forum for the exchange of research findings or professional experience. It should also be a very significant step in tearing down the walls between correctional staff and outside experts, between needy youngsters inside and the services and resources existing on the outside. We have a long way to go before we can honestly say that our work is done, that every incarcerated youth has had the opportunities, programs, services, and support required to have a fair chance for a decent and lawful life. Education, and in many cases special education, is the key. And the responsibility for that special education, as P.L. 94-142 so wisely recognized, rests primarily on the education community, not on corrections.

I started my remarks by citing an observation which is at least as old as the Bible that a society's degree of civilization can be measured by how it treats its most unfortunate and vulnerable citizens — the young, the old, the sick, the handicapped, the victims of crime, as well as the incarcerated. If measured by that standard America, I'm afraid, has not yet reached a very high level of civilization. However, over the last 25 years or so, great strides have been taken through a variety of social legislation towards better support for and care of our most unfortunate fellow citizens. P.L. 94-142 is one of the milestones in this development by trying to ensure that a free, appropriate public education is made available to all, not some, handicapped children. In concept it is a great victory for a civilized America. Implementation, however, still lags behind, especially in terms of delinquent youths. We cannot afford to backtrack now, either in terms of watering down the law, reducing the funding, making exceptions in who is to be served, or in lessening our professional and personal commitments.

I was much taken with one remark make by Mike Nelson when he said: "One of our society's highest ambitions is to protect all the species we have endangered." I submit that our handicapped youngsters in correctional institutions are very near the top of the list of endangered species. Let it not be said that we have done a better job of protecting the Bald Eagle, the California Condor, the Pandas in the Washington Zoo, or the little Snail Darter in a Tennessee River, than of protecting our own endangered children.

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Issues and Challenges Facing Special Education Teachers in a Correctional Setting

Bruce I. Wolford

> "Teaching in prison leaves a taint on a man. You'll have a difficult time getting back into public schools if you ever want to."
> (Campbell, 1978)

To open an examination of teaching in a correctional setting with this passage from W. Reason Campbell's book, *Dead Man Walking: Teaching in a Maximum Security Prison*, may seem a bit ominous. It is not meant to foreshadow impending doom, but rather to illustrate that correctional education is in many ways a unique process. The teacher who works in any correctional setting, be it a prison, jail, juvenile detention camp, or a community-based corrections program, faces challenges different from his/her public school counterpart.

Not only must the correctional educator have mastery of a teaching field (math, science, reading, etc.), but also an understanding of and ability to cope with often hostile environments and populations. In order to identify major issues facing teachers in correctional settings, this author has reviewed a number of studies and accounts of individuals' experiences.

ISSUES IN CORRECTIONAL TEACHING

The most comprehensive recent examination of correctional education identified 20 issues related to correctional education (Bell, Conard, Laffey, Lutz, Miller, Simon, Stakelon, & Wilson, 1979). Five of these have direct relationship to the correctional teacher.

1. Lack of comprehensive planning to provide long term funding, development and integration of educational programs;
2. Low priority assigned to educational programs within the institution;
3. Limitation of educational opportunity by lack of contact with the outside world;
4. Hostility of security staff toward educational programs; and
5. Poor quality of instruction and lack of specially trained teachers. (Bell, 1979)

In a self-analysis conducted by teachers in the Oklahoma Department of Corrections a similar set of issues emerged including a lack of professionalism, conflicts with security personnel, failure to aggressively sell correctional education in the classification process, low quality programs, and no long range plans for correctional education (Roberts, 1982). Although Oklahoma may not be a representative state in terms of its commitment to correctional education, many of the problems identified exist in numerous states.

In addition to broad issues of correctional education, each teacher must also learn to adapt to the correctional environment. Three major concerns emerged from Campbell's (1978) account of his expriences teaching in a maximum security prison:

1. Learning and understanding the environment;
2. Accepting the population; and
3. Deciding what and how to teach to the inmate student.

Focusing upon the special education teacher in the correctional setting brings attention to some additional issues. The first is the limited number of special educators working in correctional settings. The national average of special educators in 1979 was approximately one per correctional institution (Bell, 1979). This is particularly alarming in light of recent research which indicates that a significant percentage of the incarcerated population can be considered learning disabled (Murray, 1976). Most correctional institutions do not have effective screening mechanisms to identify the learning disabled. In addition, severely learning disabled inmates face an increased likelihood of victimization (Bowker, 1980). The learning disabled individual may well suffer more pains of punishment than do other not so disadvantaged inmates. The stresses of incarceration and the threat of victimization can certainly effect the learning disabled inmate.

The special educator often lacks support personnel ad resources necessary for dealing with learning disabled students. Because many correctional education programs have students for only a limited time and there is great demand for services in our many overcrowded institutions, there has been an increasing emphasis placed on short term certificate/proficiency programs. The "quick-fix" educational approach, although pragmatic and at times certainly capable of generating impressive completion rates, does not always provide for the time needed by special educators to identify, develop, and remediate the problems of the learning disabled.

CENTRAL ISSUES

What emerges from the preceding discussion are four central issues facing correctional teachers:

1. There is a need for long range planning in correctional education programs.
2. Educational programming needs to be assigned a high administrative and funding priority within correctional institutions and agencies.
3. Many correctional education programs and teachers are isolated both from the community and other segments of the correctional systems.
4. There exists a lack of professional identity within the field of correctional education.

NEED FOR PLANNING

The need for planning, as well as the establishment of goals and objectives, begins in the classroom and moves up through the correctional education system. If no direction is established, neither the classroom nor the educational system will make significant progress. The classroom teachers who wait for the central administrator to develop goals and objectives will likely be faced with an unwanted direction or no direction at all. The teachers in the

Oklahoma Departmet of Corrections who conducted a self-analysis used the information to chart a new direction for themselves and correctional education in Oklahoma. The teachers in that system provide an example of what can be done by beginning in the classroom and working up through the correctional system.

The development of IEP (Individualized Educational Plans) by classroom teachers can become the model for not only providing educational services to the incarcerated learner, but also addressing the broader issues in correctional special education. The IEP approach can be applied to both the teacher and the educational system. By assessing the existing competencies and identifying areas in need of improvement and or development, the correctional educator can begin to establish a new direction for himself and the correctional school system.

NEED FOR INCREASED INSTITUTIONAL PRIORITY

Teachers are providing an important service in the correctional setting, not only for the inmates, but also for the institution. In all too many correctional institutions, educational programs are the only viable opportunity available for residents who want to make a change in their lives. Because it can provide this opportunity, education serves the students and also benefits the institution. It provides hope for many individuals who otherwise have little reason to look forward. This and the meaningful activities that a school can provide make life more tolerable for some in our overcrowded institutions. Education has provided correctional institutions with both a positive and economical means of dealing with inmates. Education is the most economical treatment/rehabilitation program available in most correctional institutions. The general pubic and inmates can easily agree on the need for education within the correctional setting. Often, correctional education is the only positive change-oriented activity provided in the prison. It is the responsibility of teachers to sell their programs to supervisors, other employees (particularly in the area of custody), and administrators. The teacher must venture out of the classroom and the school building and become actively involved in the operation of the total institution.

One common problem found in the prison is that inmate students receive less institutional pay (subsistance level support from the state) than do residents who perform regular work assignments. This disparity in pay can certainly reduce the incentive to pursue an education in prison and in fact identifies the students as a second-class inmate. Recognition of the importance of education by the correctional administrators might lead them to reduce the pay inequities. The way to raise the priority of education in corrections is to bring it to the attention of correctional administrative personnel both within the institution and in the central office.

PROBLEMS OF ISOLATION

> "At times, I feel I'm living in a hiatus
> where nothing is real. There are times
> when I'm behind the walls and I begin to
> see things from an inmate's perspective."
> (Hruska, 1981)

This teacher's observations are not unusual. The experience of working in a correctional institution has generated similar feelings for many educators. The correctional educator frequently feels isolated from his/her colleagues, the community outside the institution, and the students. The very nature of a correctional institution may account for some of these feelings, but there is more to it than just being behind fences and bars. The correctional educator faces daily questions for which society does not have answers. What should we do with offenders? How can we help them to change? What constitutes a just and equitable punishment? The teacher who works with incarcerated students, cares about them, and attempts to foster understanding and change in them cannot ignore these questions. The teacher must make personal decisions, act upon those decisions, and be prepared to face daily challenges to his/her beliefs. The physical isolation of prison can be coped with by participating in programs and activities which get teachers out of the institution and the public into it. The more serious aspect of isolation is the emotional isolation many teachers experience while in such settings. This issue presents a personal challenge to all who teach in prison.

There exists a need for both preservice and in-service training directed specifically at the field of correctional education. College and university departments of education and criminal justice should direct their attention toward the needs of correctional educators. The problem of isolation can only be remedied through the involvement of correctional educators with extra-prison resources such as college and university personnel.

LACK OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

> "Most CE professionals were not trained
> for their current jobs. We pursued
> preparatory training in response to
> non-CE career aspirations, and we
> identify as professionals, in those careers."
> (Gehring, 1981)

For reasons already discussed and because correctional education is a relatively small field, it has been difficult for individuals who teach in corrections to formulate a professioal identity. Correctional educators need to develop a notion of professionalism. They can do so by joining organizations such as the Correctional Education Association, and by studying the origin and development of correctional education. By learning more about the history, development, and current trends in the field of correctional education, teachers can gain an understanding of the profession and increased recognition of the important task in which they are involved. But above all the teacher must develop the professional competencies needed to work with the special student in a correctional setting. A professional identity will surely develop in the teacher who is confident and competent in the correctional classroom.

CONCLUSION

> "To be successful amid the many challenges
> and problems inherent in penal educational
> programs, an instructor must possess an extraordinary
> commitment to teaching and learning."
> (George, 1980)

Teachers in correctional settings face many challenges. There are clearly a number of important issues which need to be addressed by the profession. The challenges of these issues are not beyond the capacity of educators to begin to address and cope with. The responsibility for dealing with these issues rests with correctional educators. But to effect meaningful change the field of correctional education will need the support and action of government through new legislation, appropriation, and leadership, colleges and universities that can provide preservice and in-service education, and correctional administrators who can heighten the priority of correctional education and provide increased budgets.

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Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens: Even More Important Today

Herbert L. Foster

The areas to be covered in this article include my first day of teaching in the New York City Public Schools; why *Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens* (Foster, 1974) is more important today; the importance of teacher dress in teacher/student relations; how ethnocentrism effects what we do in school; and the *Ribbin', Jivin', and Playin' the Dozens* games that *some* students use to test you.

My first day of teaching was at Haaran High School. I met with my department chairman on a Thursday, and he showed me to the room where I would teach mechanical drawing and blueprint reading. This room was large with tables around which 45 to 50 students would sit. Drawing boards and T-squares were on the tables, and I wanted to put them away. However, my chairman told me to leave them there and to tell my students not to use them until I gave the word. He also told me not to bother with homework and to take it easy on my students. I said "OK" but now realize that such an approach is racist.

To tell me not to make the same academic and behavioral demands on minority students that I would make on middle-class students is racist. To suggest that poor minority students cannot behave and learn is racist. As I was leaving he told me that I was the sixth substitute these students had had since the regular teacher quit 2 weeks ago.

The next day I put my name on the board and got set. When the class was seated, I introduced myself and told them how "tough" I was, and they would not drive me out the way they drove out the earlier teachers. As I spoke I noticed boys running out through one of the two doors. I rushed to close the door and noticed other boys going in and out of the second door. Finally I realized they wanted to see just how far they could go.

Suddenly someone threw a balled-up piece of paper at me. I ducked, the paper missed me, and I said, "If that is the best you can do, you better hang it up." Whereupon they showed me they could do better. Boys started throwing T-squares and drawing boards around the room; some ran across the table tops. I was so frightened, I hid in the desk's kneehole. There was so much noise; suddenly both doors flew open and there stood five teachers looking down at me. I really felt scared and embarrassed.

That weekend I considered suicide. What could I do with my life? All my life I had wanted to be a teacher. Here was my first chance, and I was a failure. I did come back on Monday. If you want to know what I did, you have to read *Ribbin'*.

Ribbin' is more important today for a number of reasons. Through the media, through the movement of blacks into white areas, and through the upward economic movement of blacks, their influence has increased. Indeed, much of the language and behavior of street-corner blacks is being picked up and exhibited by whites across all economic lines in almost all of American life.

Blue collar families have moved into traditionally suburban and rural school districts. Many excellent teachers with 10 to 20 years experience, used to traditionally middle-class students, are now beside themselves. They cannot work with the new youngsters who, in some ways, exhibit black street-corner behavior and language.

How many of you are baseball fans? Do you recall Frank Lucchesi being beaten up by Lenny Randle? The *New York Times* of March 29, 1977 reported, "The trouble began to brew last week when Lucchesi publicly referred to Randle as a 'punk' in answer to Randle's demands that he be given a chance to play regularly or be traded to another team." Later, there was an out-of-court settlement of a suit brought by Lucchesi. Lucchesi said "he learned that among blacks, the term 'punk' means 'sissy' or 'gay.' Lucchesi is white and Randle is black. Lucchesi said he did not intend to apply those terms to Randle" (New York Post, December 9, 1978).

Had Lucchesi read *Ribbin'*, that incident may not have happened. On page 133 of *Ribbin'*, I described an almost exact incident happening on a college campus. In 1981 at the Oakland-San Diego playoff game, Mike Adamle talked about someone selling "wolf tickets" all week. In writing in the *New York Times* on February 9, 1982, Dave Anderson quoted John Thomas, one of our former Olympic high jumpers, as saying, "Some of the kids I coach were woofing the old master last summer, so I did 6-6. That kept them quiet for a while." Does some of that language sound foreign? We will discuss the meanings of some of these words when we discuss street-corner behavior.

Also, in suburban and urban areas the number of minority students placed in special education programs is out of proportion to their total numbers in the district. Therefore, you should learn the language that may be used or kown by your students. That statement should not be considered as suggesting we not teach standard English. Indeed, our job is to teach middle-class saleable skills: to read, to write, and to do arithmetic. We have to teach the appropriate way to behave, to speak, and how to dress appropriately for the social situation.

Dress is one of the most important aspects of student-teacher relations. In most states teachers and students may wear whatever they wish as long as it does not interfere with curriculum, health, and safety. However, what you wear indicates how you feel about yourself, how you feel about your students and colleagues, and how you feel about your profession. Students keep records of how often you wear a particular dress, a sport coat, a skirt, or slacks. I know of cases where students could not pay attention to a teacher because the teacher's dress style was so terrible. Ask your students what they think of a male teacher who wears floods.

During the civil rights movement, many whites wore dirty, unpressed chinos or dungarees; they did not use deodorant, and rarely washed their hair when working in the black community. When you asked them why they did that, they often said it was the way they could relate to "those people." Actually, it was an unconscious racism. What they were saying was that blacks are filthy; therefore, I dress in a slovenly way to relate to them. When you respect or feel good about yourself and those you work with, your dress is fresh, neat, and clean. Of course, that does not mean that if you just dress better you will automatically become a better teacher.

Another area that must be considered is how ethnocentric teacher behavior effects teaching and learning. Indeed, many students are in our programs because of ethnocentric behavior on the part of educators. Ethnocentrism is probably our greatest school and national problem. By ethnocentrism I mean (a) the belief in the inherent superiority of one's own group and culture accompanied by a feeling of contempt for other groups and cultures, and (b) a tendency to view alien groups or cultures in terms of one's own.

In 1968 the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders reported "Our nation is moving toward two societies — one black, one white — separate and unequal." That still holds today. And because we do not really know one another, we develop fantasies or misconceptions about one another. These misconceptions cause problems in the classroom as well as in everyday life.

Here are two examples. The Buffalo Teachers Federation (Breinin, 1981) reported that "kids have been suspended for walking in an insolent manner." This is called *pimp walk* in Buffalo. In New York City it is called *ditty boppin'*. You see the walk on television and movies; look for it. In school black male students have gotten in trouble walking that way. In December 1981 Dorothy Reed of station KGO-TV in San Francisco was suspended for two weeks for wearing her hair in a cornrow style. Before she returned to work, she had to modify her hair style (Buffalo Evening News, December 11, 1981).

Unquestionably color plays an important part in ethnocentrism. However, anywhere you may go on our spaceship earth, you will find ethnocentric behavior based on color, race, place of birth, social class, religion, tribe, area of origin, etc.

An example of ethnocentric behavior in our schools that was based on social class was described by Hollingshead in his book *Elmstown's Youth* (1949). In his study he found that students were disciplined depending upon the economic background of their parents.

In my work around the country, I have found the same conditions prevailing in most schools. In *Ribbin'* I reported four categories of students in inner-city schools. The first group were middle-class youngsters. Though they may have had only one parent at home and were on welfare, they were brought up with middle-class life styles and behaviors; i.e., they were taken to zoos, concerts, etc.

The next group were the street-corner youngsters who were 2 or 3 in a class of 30. These youngsters use street-corner coping and survival techniques to test you. These techniques are physical, aggressive, and sexual — three areas with which many teachers have problems. When the street-corner youngster tests you, he is also playing to the other children in the class. He is testing to see whether you are emotionally tough enough to make him control his behavior. In most cases he really wants to behave.

There are suburban and rural school equivalents to the street-corner youngster; for example; greasers, hard kids, vokies, freaks, hill kids, etc.

In a suburban school where I live, the groups include Preppies, (Sewer) Rats, and Jocks. The Preppies are typical middle-class youngsters; the Rats are to a large extent the poor, the minorities, and the alienated middle-class; the Jocks are the athletes.

If you are observant, you can see the various groups together; you can see the differences in their dress. And as Hollingshead found, in many cases there is an unequal enforcement of discipline. Often teachers do not like the way the typical "hard" youngster looks, dresses, walks, behaves, smells, or speaks. Therefore, he is disciplined more than he should be, is suspended more than he should be, is placed in a special program, or drops out of school as soon as he can.

The following took place in a suburban high school. A black youngster and his teacher were arguing. The youngster realized he had better shut up or he was in trouble. However, the teacher kept after him and finally said, "This is not the city." Because that was the youngster's Achilles heel, he walked out of the class and was subsequently suspended.

Now I will demonstrate and discuss some of the street-corner games that give teachers and administrators so much trouble. One of my doctoral students, Dr. Richard Marotto, in his dissertation (1978) referred to street-corner coping and survival techniques that included the dozens, ribbin', signifying, shuckin' and jivin', woofin', language (conducted), physicalness (acting out/-aggressive), nonverbal kinetic gestures (look, walk, stance, and greeting), mode of dress, working game, and putting someone on.

Youngsters playing the dozens (or any of its many names — gettin' in the kitchen, mama talk, gettin' in the crib, etc.) probably cause more problems in school than we realize. The dozens has been played all over the world. When I was growing up in Brooklyn, the Italian youngsters would say "Your mama's canary," and that would start a fight. In the Polish section of Buffalo, saying "Your mama wears combat boots" will start a fight, too.

There is a clean dozens and a dirty dozens. Some report the dozens is an attempt by young blacks to cut the umbilical cord from a matriarchal family. There also is a rhyming dozens. The dozens was even played in the original movie version of *M*A*S*H*.

In school one youngster may say something about another youngster's mother. For example, "Hey, I saw your mama on the street last night" or "Tell your mama she was good last night." Often, the result is a fight. Too often teachers do not understand the game. Therefore the game gets out of hand. If teachers would understand these games, they could intercede before the game escalated to a discipline problem.

Once you understand these games, you can develop a style for controlling them. For example, the easiest way to stop the dozens is to say, "I don't play that game." Very often the mere fact that the teacher knows the game is enough of a surprise for the students to stop it.

Ribbin' is another game or event. This is where a student makes fun of another's clothing, physical deformity, being on welfare, etc. A youngster may say that someone has "skippies" or "buddies" on. How many of you know what they are? Those are what inexpensive tennis, running shoes, or sneakers are called. Do you know the name for them in your school? You may call this behavior "mocking out" or "cutting down."

Sometimes the youngsters may say something such as, "You look clean, it must be mother's day," the implication being that he is on welfare and the welfare check arrived. Hence, he is able to dress okay. Also, a student will play the game on the teacher as he attempts to see how hip the teacher is, how well the teacher can handle the situation, or he may be contesting the teacher for control of the class.

Around Christmas time a youngster may ask his teacher, "Mrs. Reed, what does *trim* mean?" While this is going on the class, as though they were on a street corner, listens to see what will happen. How would you answer? Most often the teacher will say, "To trim the tree." When that is the answer, the class often cracks up with laughter.

On the street corner, *trim* means sexual intercourse or vigina. Now that you know the meaning of trim, would you have answered the youngster differently?

Here are examples of how two female teachers dealt with a question about trim. In one case the teacher was hip. She said, "What's the matter — you're not getting any so you are talking about it." In the other case the teacher was straight and conservative. She said, "Look, I don't want that game played in this room. If you want to play that game, do it outside in the street, not in my class. I am being paid to teach." Both approaches were effective. The objective is to get order and to teach.

Signifyin' is another street-corner activity involving at least two participants. Among students it often works this way. One student may go over to another and say, "Larry said your mama is a ho(whore)." He will then go over to a second student and say, "Frank said your mama is a ho." Most often, Larry and Frank end up arguing or fighting.

The game is also played on teachers. A number of boys may go over to a teacher and say, "Mr. Green said you always have bad breath." They will then go to Mr. Green and say, "Mr. Smith said you always wear ankle breakers."

Shuckin' and Jivin' is a technique that blacks have often used to save their lives; for some, it has been a safety valve. Historically, blacks have used it to act the monkey or helpless soul that fulfills one of the white's misconceptions. For example, if you recall the television movie, *The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pitman*, you may recall a scene after the war where she and a young child are picked up by a black man driving a wagon. As they talk normally, a group of whites on horseback and carrying guns suddenly accosts them. The whites ask some questions, and the black man responds with, "Yes, massa, I be doin' dat," etc. He, through his speech pattern and body ovements, fulfills the dumb, unknowing, and subservient black man for those on horseback. Had he acted defiantly, he probably would have been shot or lynched.

In school a youngster may be in a classroom causing a problem. About the time he expects the principal to arrive, he rushes out of the room. The principal stops him and asks where he is going. In response, he indicates that there are some crazy things going on in that room, and he does not wish to get in trouble; that is why he left. He may also whine a bit to indicate he is being a good defenseless child. Usually the principal will let him go.

The last event I will mention is *woofin'* which can be a number of things. It can be used as a very physical, aggressive, and sexual tactic used by some boys or girls to intimidate teachers (I have observed woofs succeeding against very middle-class black and white teachers.) It may also be a youngster threatening someone. Or *to sell woof tickets* may be to threaten but not being able to back it up.

For the teacher, it may mean a youngster blocking his way in the hall by standing in his way, by placing his hand on the wall and blocking his way, or it may be walking down the hall with his belt buckle open. For these woofs to work, the misconceptions of the teacher and the student have to be played out. What are misconceptions that whites have about black men, and what are the misconceptions that blacks have about white men? Think about it.

You need not answer these questions, just think about them. Those of you who are white, when you were growing up, how many of you had parents who socialized with people of a different race, religion, or social class? And as adults, how many of you have friends you see socially who are of a different race, religion, or social class? And of those of you who are black, I would ask the same questions about your parents and about you.

Socially, some of you may see people of a different race, class, or religion. However, most people socialize with friends of their own religion, class, or race. Hence, because we do not know those of other religions, races, or classes from first hand experiences, when someone tries to sell us a woof ticket, we very often buy it.

Let us discuss a woof taking place in school. A male student with an Afro is walking down the hall with some friends. As they come alongside a new male teacher, the young man blocks his way by putting his hand out and onto the wall. How would you react to that? Think about it.

In reaction one, the teacher asks the student why he is doing this to him because he is not prejudiced like some of the other teachers. The student does not respond, but keeps looking into his eyes. Whereupon, the teacher walks under his hand or around him. In reaction two, the teacher asks the same questions, when no answer is given, he panics and hits the student. Whereupon, the student hits him back. In reaction three as the student moves to block the teacher's way, the teacher grabs his arm, and moves him out of the way. Would you react in any of those ways?

After reaction one and later that afternoon, the young man who woofed on the teacher saw him in the hall and called out, "Hi, Mr. Faggot." Here the teacher lost the contest; he was afraid.

In reaction two, the student hit the teacher back and was suspended. The report the teacher completed indicated that the youngster hit him; no mention was made of the fact that he hit the student first.

In reaction three, as the teacher moved the youngster out of the way, the other boys said to their friend, "Hey, you tryin' to make the teacher walk around you?" In this case the teacher did not panic, and if he were afraid, he did not show it. Unquestionably, when he grabbed the youngster who was blocking his way, he could have been hit.

Those were just three ways of handling a woof.

SUMMARY

First, get to know everything about your students' culture or subculture. Second, develop a teaching style based on your personality. What works for you may not work for others. However, if it works for you, that is what counts.

Also, although almost all your black students understand these games, usually only 2 or 3 street-corner youngsters in a class of 30 will attempt to test you with their street-corner coping and survival techniques. There are many youngsters in your class who are black and poor and whose parents or parent have provided them with middle-class aspirations.

All of us have used our middle-class saleable skills to get and hold our jobs. It is our responsibility, therefore, to provide our students with middle-class saleable skills so that they, if they choose, can also make it economically into middle-class America.

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A Personal Adjustment Curriculum for Secondary Behaviorally Disordered Students

Cora J. Houchens

William Morse (1982) asks the question, "Has there been a time in recent memory when affective education was more needed in the schools?" Our society is a high-risk society for growing up and growing up handicapped adds to the risk of not achieving emotional integration and social skills. The practices of special education have not always recognized the emotional side of the student. Schools want the student to be able to compete in the social and academic mainstream whenever he or she possibly can, even though they (the schools) have concentrated mainly on the academic areas alone.

The general lack of affective programming in our schools should not be taken as an indication that affective goals are unimportant. Schools have emphasized the development of cognitive skills with many curriculums, but there is a "hidden curriculum" which plays an important role in the lives of students (Cartledge & Milburn, 1978).

This hidden curriculum attempts to teach students those social skills and behaviors, values, and attitudes which are thought to be important in school and society. Up until now there has been little direct instruction in the area of personal adjustment or the affective education area. We assume students learn such skills on their own but the review of literature tells us that a significant number of learning disabled students and emotionally impaired students do not (Bryan, 1977; Gordon, 1970; Griffin, 1971; Silver, 1974).

Wallace and McLaughlin (1979) stress the importance of both academic and nonacademic skills in the education of learning disabled students, suggesting that the development of social skills should be emphasized. Berlin (1975) also states that even though the schools are known for their academic climate, there is also an emotional climate which supports learning. Wood (1982) emphasizes that the primary concern of every teacher of special education should be cognitive development, physical development, and socioemotional development.

As with special education, affective education was once considered the responsibility of "experts," not the classroom teacher. Students with social and personal adjustment problems were referred to these experts: the school social worker, the psychologist, or the guidance counselor. Specialists' skills were then applied, usually on a one-to-one basis.

In teaching affective education and personal adjustment, teachers are not being asked to do more than they have always done, but what is being proposed is a conversion of the affective effort that is already taking place.

Teachers already spend time motivating the uninvolved, resolving peer conflicts, and encouraging reluctant students to join the group, so why not get on with planned teaching in the affective areas as well? Jersild (1952) said it long ago: "The function of the school is to enhance the student's self-concept. Affective education requires consciously directing the teacher's affective intervention and not leaving the matter to haphazard efforts."

Wood describes the two generic labels of affective programming as "Affective Education" and "Social Skills Training" (McDowell, Adamson & Wood, 1982).

Affective educators place greater stress on thoughts, feelings, and interpersonal relationships when describing their programs. They try to provide experiences in which cognitive and emotional development are interrelated in ways that lead to enhancement of student self-concept and to the development of social skills.

Social skills training is the planning of experiences that will teach students "behavior that can be used when appropriate to secure positive interpersonal consequences and avoid aversive consequences" (Polsgrove & Nelson, 1982).

Morse, Ardizzone, Macdonald, and Pasick (1980) present a model of affective education with the goals depicted on three dimensions: personal, social, and attitudinal. They state "the purpose of affective education is to foster in each individual an adequate self-concept combined with self-esteem. This is their personal dimension. The social dimension is the interpersonal relationships developed toward others, handling one's impulses, and learning to experience social situations. The last dimension, the attitudinal dimension, involves life experiences, attitudes, and appreciation of these experiences. These three dimensions make up a person's life.

The goal of the author in the following pages is to present a curriculum that would be labeled "affective education" by Wood and include the basic characteristics, of life — personal, social, and attitudinal dimensions of life. Teachers need an affective curriculum which provides them with the tools to teach these skills in a systematic manner. Such a curriculum in affective education has been taught directly to learning disabled and emotionally impaired students at East Detroit High School for the last 8 years. The following is the story of how this curriculum was developed, the affective principles on which it is founded, a glimpse at the curriculum model itself, and the evaluation of such a program.

METHOD AND DESIGN

In September 1974 the director of special education for the East Detroit Public Schools hired five special education teachers for the district's high school to initiate a program for the emotionally impaired and learning disabled students using the Team-Model approach. This cross categorical secondary program utilized all five teachers' talents and abilities while each worked within his/her own specialized role. The author of this paper was the teacher consultant for the affective and personal adjustment area for the emotionally impaired and learning disabled in this model program.

At first, the author began seeing students individually, taking them out of their classes and talking to them on a one-to-one basis. This approach was found to be unsuccessful. Students did not want to leave the regular classroom to meet with the teacher consultant for fear of appearing to be "special." they also did not want to come before school hours or stay after dismissal time due to jobs or other commitments. It became a difficult task to see

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individual students for long periods of time more than twice a week. When meeting with the students, the author felt as though she was listening, making decisions, but not helping the students learn about themselves (identity), their friends or parents (interpersonal relationships), or their attitudes and beliefs (values). The meetings with each student became mini-counseling sessions and the students repeated the same problems and areas of concern affecting their skills and behaviors.

Feeling that group dynamics might be a more successful tool, the author wanted to schedule students together to talk about the same problems and areas of concern. In the classroom, many potent social rewards are controlled by the peer group. Changing of peer reward patterns or supplementing them with adult-controlled reinforcement has been shown to be an effective means of encouraging communication in many areas (Lebsock & Salzberg, 1981).

The birth of a new course, Personal Growth, came about in February 1975. Approval was obtained from the director of special education, the school principal, and the board of education. The course was to be one-half unit of credit, like all the other courses in the high school, and was specifically for certified emotionally impaired and learning disabled students. It was one of their five daily classes. For heavily mainstreamed students, it was the only special education class. For other students, it was one of a mixture of special education and regular classes. The Personal Growth course was included in each student's Individualized Educational Program (IEP).

Each class section had 10 students enrolled. Three class sessions were held daily, thus giving direct service or instruction to a total of 30 students on a regular basis 5 days a week. The result of this was that teacher frustration and stress disappeared because not only had a real learning situation been established in the classroom, but there was still time to see students on an individual basis, make teacher contacts, participate in IEPCs, and perform other role responsibilities.

A course description was written for the high school's information package that students and parents receive. It read:

> *Personal Growth* — This course focuses on three areas: identity, interpersonal relationships, and values. The initial phase is awareness in each of these areas to help the student become more aware of his/her identity, of his/her patterns, preferences, influences, competencies, and body. Another objective is to help the student become more aware of what he/she does in his/her interpersonal relationships, how he/she affects others, and what he/she needs from others. Helping the student become more aware of his/her values and the degree to which his/her actions reflect his/her values is also incorporated in this course.

Three major areas were covered in Personal Growth as listed in the course description; identity, interpersonal relationships, and values.

Personal Growth starts with the self, stressing how a student sees himself/-herself and his/her situation. While situations may change, a student's beliefs about himself/herself are always determining factors in his/her school behavior. Most educators concerned with special students of high school age agree that a poor self-concept is evidenced in many high school-age handicapped students (Bryan, 1977; Kronick, 1981; Morse, 1982). This generates feelings of insecurity in the students and affects how he/she relates to people. A student with a poor view of himself/herself may have difficulty in conversing with others, admitting that he/she is wrong, expressing his/her feelings, accepting

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constructive criticism from others, or evaluating ideas that differ from those of other people. An insecure student is often afraid that others may not like him/her if he/she disagrees with them. The same student, because he/she feels unworthy, inadequate, and inferior, lacks confidence and thinks that his/her ideas are uninteresting to others and not worth communicating. He/she may become seclusive and guarded in his/her communication, therefore negating his/her own ideas.

In order for an adolescent student to grow emotionally, he/she must be aware of the people around him/her and of their influences on his/her behavior and attitudes. Different behaviors are involved in establishing interpersonal relationships. Schutz (1960) identifies three key types of behavior involved in interpersonal relationships: inclusion, control, and affection. First, the student exhibits behaviors to satisfy his/her need for association with people, for companionship, belonging, and togetherness. Next, the student needs to recognize that he/she may have to exert authority or influence over other people. Finally behaviors are directed toward satisfying the need for close, personal feelings between two people. Most "normal" students successfully learn the behavioral responses which govern social interaction without the benefit of any planned and organized instruction (Schaeffer & Francescani, 1981). Most behaviorally disordered students do not. They need direct and systematic instruction in these skills. Many behaviorally disordered students are given labels due to the types of behavior they exhibit in their interpersonal relationships. When a student is not included in a relationship, in school or outside the school, he/she is described as being isolated. If his/her behavior is such that he/she cannot exert authority or influence, he/she becmes a "follower." If he/she reacts negatively, he/she is said to be rebellious or unruly.

Other interpersonal skills that often need reinforcing are: the ability to identify and build on personal strengths; giving and receiving precise, positive feedback; active listening; the ability to emphasize others' positive points; the ability to use group planning in an effort to solve problems rather than a competition for power or control; and the ability to both give and accept direction in working toward a common goal.

Every day, students meet situations which call for thought, opinion, decision-making, and action. Each one of their daily decisions and actions are based on cosciously and unconsciously held beliefs, attitudes, and values. The student often ponders over what and how to think, believe, and behave. Simon (1972) states repeatedly that today value conflicts are more acute than ever before. Often a behaviorally disordered student does not accept the values held by his parents, peers, and school authorities. This can lead to an emptiness of commitment or a feeling that life has no purpose. This feeling can in turn lead to frustration and acting-out behavior by the student. These behaviors may be directed toward parents, peers, and school authorities who helped produce the feeling of emptiness. As a result, the student may escape in temporary desperate excitements. He/she may jump from one job to another, unable to find any kind of work that is satisfying. He/she may spend his/her time daydreaming, unmoved by any effort of his/her teachers and parents. He/she has not clarified for himself/herself what he/she values and consequently cannot have a clear, consistent purpose or know what he/she believes. He/she does not know where he/she is going or why. He/she simply is not clear as to what his/her life is about and therefore is unable or unwilling to utilize his/her full intellectual potential in everyday living.

From the three major areas of identity, interpersonal relationships, and values, 42 course objectives were written. A hierarchy of ideas and topics developed were utilized with detailed outlines of daily lesson plans. Each lesson plan included:

- Topic
- Area of Personal Growth
- Method of Presentation
- Goal and Instructional Objective
- Strategy and Materials
- Music To Be Used With Topic

Music was stressed in each topic as adolescents can understand their feelings through musical expression. Music provides an imagination and emotional expression; when the feeling of anger was discussed, the song "Angry Young Man" by the group Styx was used for concluding the topic.

The importance of following a hierarchy of units was very important in that students are working on skills and behaviors and need structured lessons to meet these goals and objectives. Following are the units coverd for Personal Growth I.

- Awareness
  - Similarities and Differences
  - Strengths and Abilities
- Feelings, Thought, Behavior
  - Love
  - Happiness
  - Anger
  - Hurt
  - Jealousy
  - Loneliness
- Perception and Sensitivity
- Body Image
- Dreaming
- Trust
- The Helping Relationship
- Friendship
- Identity
  - Activities
  - Time
  - Values
  - Events
  - Ideas of the Future
- Going Through Changes
- Communication
  - Awareness, Listening
  - Ways to Communicate
- Values
  - Rank Ordering
  - Voting
  - Continuum
- Risk-Taking
- Decision-Making
  - Moving
  - Joining a Crowd
  - Saying NO
- Personalities
- Roles and Goals
- Game Playing
- Winning and Losing

(Houchens, 1982)

The students and the teacher sat in a circle for most of the daily lessons. Sometimes other room variations were used. The students usually sat in the same seats daily although there were no assigned seats. Verbal discussion was the prime source of interaction and mode of delivery with little writing. Writing was only used to clarify verbal conversation or answer questions.

Since Personal Growth was a class requiring group participation and involved listening and communication skills, classroom participation was one of the most important elements in establishing the group dynamics necessary to achieve the desired objectives for each class. The various methods listed below were used to provide a variety of presentations and involve visual, auditory, and multisensory channels of learning:

- Buzz Sessions
- Brainstorming
- Community Action Problem Solving
- Debate
- Discussion
- Rank Ordering
- Dramatization
- Lecture
- Open-ended Stories
- Role-Playing
- Group Interpretation

(Houchens, 1982)

EVALUATION

All the students were pretested and posttested on two measurement instruments, the Interpersonal Communication Inventory (1970) and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (1964).

The Interpersonal Communication Inventory was used as a measuring device for teaching purposes in that all items were organized into clusters of communication and became the instructional objectives for the course. These clusters from the 40-item inventory included the individual's ability to listen, to self-disclose, to handle angry feelings, to express himself/herself, and his/her self-esteem was explored. The self-inventory asks the students to respond by checking one of three possible responses: *yes, sometimes,* and *no* which are then scored from zero to three. The higher score is given the favorable response indicative of good interpersonal communication.

The Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale measured total self-concept on a broader scale with regard to behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance, and satisfaction in students. This pretest and posttest instrument was used for meeting the Personal Growth course objectives. This instrument has a total of 80 questions requiring the student to answer *yes* and *no* and is written at the third-grade reading level. The scale is broken up into six interpretable factors of self-concept: behavior, intellectual and school status, physical appearance and attributes, anxiety, popularity, and happiness and satisfaction. Sums of these, or a percentage of the items answered in the given direction for each factor, can be calculated to obtain a cluster score. These cluster scores and their factor items are all scored in the positive direction: the higher the score the more positive is the attribute.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

During the last 6 years the significant results obtained from the Interpersonal Communication Inventory have showed increases in all eight cluster scores, a marked increase in total raw scores as well as a mean increase for all Personal Growth classes. This communication inventory shows that communication is the process of transmitting feelings, attitudes, facts, and beliefs about yourself. It is through language, the primary means of communication, that individuals influence, exchange meanings, and understand one another as well as the self, thus self-concept (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

Correlation Between Pretest and Posttest on Interpersonal Communication Inventory for Nine Students or One Personal Growth I Class (Total Scores)

Pretest	Posttest	Change in Raw Score
Mean=63.22	Mean=73.66	Mean Increase=10.44
SD=10.29	SD=10.67	+96

Individual scores on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale were higher on the posttest. This instrument has only been given for the last year. All students showed significant gains that could be listed as growth. What was also important was that the group mean increase indicated a more positive self-concept for the Personal Growth class as a group. When each individual's raw score together with percentile ranking was compared with members of the normative group, all students on the pretest scored below average. On the posttest all students had average raw scores, and higher percentiles. All stanine scores were also in the average range and the mean of the posttest was equivalent to the mean of the normative sample (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

Correlation Between Pretest and Posttest on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale for Nine Students or One Personal Growth I Class (Total Scores)

Pretest	Posttest	Change In Raw Score
Mean=48.77	Mean=56.33	Mean Increase=7.56
SD=7.13	SD=4.18	+61

Daily evaluation of each student was stressed by the author. The traditional marking system used in the school does not suit the goals and objectives of Personal Growth. Since the class is based on verbal communication, grades are given for participation in class discussion, listening ability, self-disclosure, frankness/confrontation, and interpersonal communication. Shy students are graded at their own levels, and differently from highly verbal students. Students are told their daily grades during the last 5 minutes of each class period so that each student knows what areas he or she needs to work on. Besides a daily grade, students are given an oral 6-week test and a tape-recorded final exam.

From the significant gains over the years on the Interpersonal Communication Inventory, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, and the students' feedback and grades, the Personal Growth course became a two-part class structured as follows:

1st Semester (September to January): Personal Growth I
  All new 10th graders plus all 11th graders new to the High School
2nd Semester (January to June): Personal Growth II
  All 12th graders

The East Detroit Special Education Department feels that the affective area is so important that Personal Growth I is recommended for all certified behaviorally disordered students as part of their English Communication credit at their IEP. Personal Growth II is chosen by the students as an English Communication elective because of the growth from Personal Growth I.

Personal Growth is a lifelong process and personal growth activities often produce significant behavior changes weeks, months, or even years after the class and activities have occurred.

This curriculum gave evidence of how a teacher and all teachers can become the critical stabilizing force in many students' lives through their understanding of the learning disabled students' and emotionally impaired students' social ineptitude. With the literature showing how special education and behaviorally disordered students are at a higher risk for affective development, the school can become preventive through the application of affective education, teaching directly to a hierarchy of skills. Teachers need an affective curriculum which provides them with the tools to teach affective skills in a systematic manner. The Houchens Daily Personal Growth curriculum is a step in this direction and will increase self-concept in secondary behaviorally disordered students.

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Developing a Social Skills Curriculum for Mildly Handicapped Adolescents and Young Adults: Some Problems and Approaches

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ABSTRACT

Mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults often have deficits with regard to interacting appropriately with other people. These deficits may affect a number of aspects of mildly handicapped youths' lives including their acceptance by nonhandicapped peers, their performance in school, their adjustment in the community, and their ability to obtain and successfully hold a job. In spite of the fact that social skills appear to be critical in determining success and adjustment for mildly handicapped adolescents, little instructional time in educational programs is devoted to teaching appropriate social behaviors. The purpose of this article is to outline the major considerations that were addressed in developing a social skills curriculum for mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults. The general principles that guided the development of The Social Skills Curriculum were as follows. First, the curriculum had to be based on as broad a source of information as possible. It had to be responsive to the unique characteristics of the mildly handicapped population; and finally, the method of presentation of the social skills content had to be maximally adaptable to settings where the students will learn to use the skills. The major problems faced in developing The Social Skills Curriculum were the selection and specification of target social skills, the identificatin of situations in which these skills were appropriate, and the integration of the skills and situations within an effective teaching methodology that could be utilized in schools and other service-delivery settings. Efforts to solve these problems have resulted in a curriculum designed to offer a practical approach to teaching important skills in a neglected area.

The ability to interact positively with others is extremely important for everyone, but especially for handicapped adolescents. For these adolescents, who are often already at a disadvantage in school and in the community, as well as recreational and job settings, deficits in knowing how to interact appropriately with others can add to their burdens. Social skill deficits have long been recognized as characteristics that distinguish the handicapped from the

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nonhandicapped (Grossman, 1977; Telford &v Sawrey, 1972; Zigmond & Brownlee, 1980), and often make the mildly handicapped adolescent easily discernible, labeled, and rejected.

In an excellent review on social skill training, Gresham (1981) found several studies indicating that nonhandicapped children rarely interact socially with mainstreamed handicapped children and that some handicapped children do not acquire the appropriate social skills without specific training (Allen, Benning, & Drummond, 1972; Bruininks, 1978; Feitelson, Weintraub, & Michael, 1972; Karnes, Teska, & Hodgins, 1970; Morgan, 1977). Handicapped children also appear to be poorly accepted by their nonhandicapped peers. Such findings have been reported with regard to mentally retarded children (Ballard, Corman, Gottlieb, & Kaufman, 1978; Bruininks, Rynders, & Gross, 1974; Goodman, Gottlieb, & Harrison, 1972; Gottlieb & Budoff, 1973), the learning disabled (Bruininks, 1978; Bryan, 1974, 1976, 1978; Bryan & Wheeler, 1972), and the emotionally disturbed/behaviorally disordered (Morgan, 1977; Quay, Morse, & Cutler, 1966).

In addition, there is evidence to suggest that social skills performance of mildly handicapped adolescents is significantly worse than the performance of their nonhandicapped peers. Mathews, Whang, and Fawcett (1982) found that LD adolescents performed significantly worse than their non-LD peers on four of ten tested occupational social skills. Likewise, Schumaker, Hazel, Sherman, and Sheldon (1982) noted that LD youths performed worse than their non-LD peers on seven of eight social skills tested. Further, the LD adolescents were found to perform similarly to a group of court-adjudicated adolescents.

These apparent deficits could have an effect on mildly handicapped individuals' social life adjustment patterns. For example, evidence indicates a relationship between social behaviors and school achievement. Students who are able to ask questions, seek out the teacher, ask for his/her input, answer or attempt to answer questions, look at and smile at the teacher, and carry on conversations generally receive more positive teacher attention and experience more academic success (Cartledge & Milburn, 1978). Some studies have identified specific social "survival skills" that appear to be related to academic achievement (Cobb & Hops, 1973; Hops & Cobb, 1973; Walker & Hops, 1976). Improving mildly handicapped adolescents' social skills in the classroom, therefore, may enable them to receive more positive teacher attention and more academic help, thereby improving academic performance and increasing the likelihood that they will be skilled enough to obtain jobs and live independently.

Social skills deficits may also impact the acceptance of the mildly handicapped within the community. Social skills, or the lack thereof, seem to be important in determining whether youths are referred to juvenile courts. For example, a number of studies have indicated that, although the type of behavior (offense) is critical, a youth's interaction skills are a major determinant of police dispositional decisions (Black & Reiss, 1970; Goldman, 1963; Piliavin & Briar, 1964). Also, once a youth is labeled, especially "delinquent," his/her ability to get along with teachers, social workers, probation officers, and judges often has a major bearing on whether the youth remains in the community or is institutionalized (Cohn, 1963; Gross, 1967). Thus, engaging in appropriate social behavior may mean the difference between institutionalization and being allowed to live in the community.

Social skills also appear to be related to obtaining a job and successful job performance (Fulton, 1975). Goldstein (1972), for example, found that employers tend to view vocational adjustment problems as related more to social behaviors than to the actual job or task performance. Thus, it may be just as important to follow instructions properly, accept criticism appropriately, and negotiate conflict situations as it is to perform the job well.

Finally, social skills have been identified as a critical variable in determining the adjustment and quality of life of the mildly handicapped individual in the community (Edgerton, 1967; McDevitt, Smith, Schmidt, & Rosen, 1978; Schalack & Harper, 1978). In fact, lack of appropriate social skills has been referred to as a determining cause of handicapped persons' failure in community placement (Eagle, 1967; Stacy, Doleys, & Malcolm, 1979; Windle, Stewart, & Brown, 1961).

Thus, it appears that the degree to which mildly handicapped adolescents can interact effectively on a social basis is a critical determinant of their success and adjustment (Alley & Deshler, 1979; Siegel, 1974; Zigmond & Brownlee, 1980). Many of the problems associated with social skills deficits may be remediated with a social skills training program. For example, poor acceptance of handicapped children by peers may not be inevitable since social skill training can increase the number of positive interactions in which handicapped youths engage and the likelihood of acceptance by nonhandicapped peers (Gresham, 1981). Nevertheless, most instructional time in educational programs for mildly handicapped learners is spent in the acquisition of academic and vocational competencies. Relatively little attention is devoted to teaching students the social skills that will facilitate their success and adjustment in learning, employment, daily living, and leisure situations. If mildly handicapped learners are to be successfully integrated into society, teaching them appropriate social behaviors must then become an important instructional goal. The realization of this instructional goal is contingent in part on the development of a curriculum for teaching appropriate social behaviors.

This article will outline some of the issues that were faced in developing a social skills curriculum for mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults, a project that began in the fall of 1981. The overall goal of the project was to lessen or remediate the effects of handicapping conditions by teaching functional social skills that would allow learners to be more adept and effective in educational, employment, and everyday-living situations. The populations targeted for teaching were mildly handicapped adolescents who were learning disabled, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed. The project has resulted in an initial curriculum that has undergone preliminary field testing. The results from the preliminary testing have been used to develop a revised curriculum that is currently undergoing extensive field testing. The results of this field testing will be reported in a subsequent paper. The purpose of this paper is to describe some of the issues and decisions that were involved in designing The Social Skills Curriculum. These issues are ones that are likely to be faced by those who develop curricula in areas such as social skills where the domain and content are relatively undefined.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES GUIDING THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Given the special problems associated with developing a social skills curriculum and those associated with teaching mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults within the settings where they are typically taught, the development process to be described here was guided by three general principles.

The first principle guiding development was that the curriculum should be based on as broad a source of information as possible, including observational accounts, formal research, and practical experience. Thus, the available writings describing the social skills deficits of handicapped people in contrast to nonhandicapped people provided one source of information (Schumaker, Hazel, Sherman, & Sheldon, 1982). Studies showing correlations between successful adjustment and various skills provided another source of information (Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, & Sheldon-Wildgen, 1981). Yet another source of information was the writings of professionals who focused on the social behavior of the mildly handicapped (Kronich, 1981). Equally important were the opinions of mildly handicapped adolescents themselves and of people who typically interact with mildly handicapped adolescents such as teachers and parents. These individuals were asked to identify what social skills they thought were most relevant and useful and in what situations the skills needed to be displayed. In addition, they were also asked to identify common problem situations for mildly handicapped youth.

The second principle guiding the development process was that The Social Skills Curriculum must be responsive to the unique characteristics of the mildly handicapped population. These learners' skills and deficits must be understood in light of the different settings and conditions in which they are taught, and the designed materials must be responsive to those factors. The Social Skills Curriculum for handicapped students should therefore incorporate those instructional methodologies and practices that have been found to be effective with this population. In recent years, significant progress has been made relative to the specification of instructional practices that facilitate the learning and performance of mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults (Schumaker, Deshler, Denton, Alley, Clark, & Warner, 1981; Schumaker, Deshler, Nolan, Clark, Alley, & Warner, 1981).

The third principle guiding development efforts was that the formats and modes of presentation incorporated within a social skills curriculum be maximally adaptable to settings in which social skills are likely to be taught or influenced. That is, mildly handicapped adolescents should be instructed in both school and nonschool settings (e.g., group homes, agencies, and on-the-job). Since a variety of service-delivery models are used within these settings, instructional materials must be highly adaptable, flexible, and robust. Numerous educational materials and curricula have been developed that are both theoretically sound and well-grounded in a research base, but fail to be used effectively in everyday practice. Thus, people with considerable experience in the realities of implementing curricula in practice were an important source of informaiton.

PROBLEMS AND ACTIVITIES DURING THE DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

There were several problems that were faced in developing The Social Skills Curriculum. First, the content of a teaching program for social skills is not well established. In contrast, many other subjects taught to handicapped adolescents and young adults, such as math, reading, social studies, and science, have a content that is reasonably well established or at least there are existing curriculum materials for these content areas that are commonly accepted as having appropriate content, structure, and sequence. This is not true, in large part, in the area of social skills where there are only a few examples of curriculum products (Dupont & Dupont, 1979; Wehman, 1975) and little information on what constitutes acceptable and important social behavior.

Second, the skills to be taught in a social skills curriculum are very complex. To interact appropriately with other people, one must (a) discriminate social

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cues and situational factors that provide the context for applying social skills, (b) understand the typical consequences of various behaviors, (c) organize behavior into a smooth sequence, and (d) recognize the changing nature of social norms and values that interact to determine what constitutes appropriate social behavior. A learner must be taught that in one setting and to one person, a particular sequence of behaviors will typically result in one type of consequence, whereas the same sequence of behaviors in another setting or to another person may result in different consequences. Further, an "understanding" of all these factors is not enough. The learner must display a smooth integrated sequence of verbal and nonverbal behavior to perform the skill correctly.

A major goal in the development process was the specification of target skills in relationship to identifiable social situations in ways that were understandable to our learners but that also reflected the social realities of everyday life. Further, this specification needed to be combined with teaching methodologies that would foster the effective use of appropriate skills by the learners in a variety of social situations. Described below are the efforts that were undertaken to (a) select and specify the target social skills, (b) select the situations in which the social skills are used and integrate the skills with the situations, and (c) select and describe effective teaching methods.

Selection and specification of target social skills. One of the first tasks undertaken in developing The Social Skills Curriculum was the determination of the social skills that would form the content of the curriculum. These had to be skills that are commonly needed by the target population. To accomplish this task, a review was completed of the research literature on the social skills of the mildly handicapped and the social situations in which these mildly handicapped experience problems. Decision rules were then employed to identify deficit skill areas. The following decision rules were used.

1. A social skill deficit exists if mildly handicapped individuals are significantly different from nonhandicapped individuals on a measure of the social skill.
2. A social skill deficit exists if mildly handicapped individuals are not significantly different from nonhandicapped individuals on a measure of the social skill, but appear to need to use the skill more than the nonhandicapped (e.g., requesting help or feedback from a teacher).
3. A social skill deficit exists if 30% or more of the handicapped population show poor performance of the skill in studies where no comparisons are made between handicapped and nonhandicapped subject.

Research studies with learning disabled adolescents (Deshler, Schumaker, Warner, Alley, & Clark, 1980; Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, & Sheldon, 1982; laGreca & Mesibov, 1981; Mathews, et al., 1982; Schumaker, Hazel, Sherman, & Sheldon, 1982; Schumaker, Sheldon, & Sherman, 1982; Zigmond & Brownlee, 1980), with emotionally disturbed adolescents (Freedman, Rosenthal, Donahue, Schmidt, & McFall, 1978; Hazel, Schumaker, Sherman, & Sheldon-Wildgen, 1981; Spence, 1981), and with mentally retarded adolescents and young adults (Bates, 1980; Bornstein, Bach, McFall, Friman, & Lyons, 1980; Geller, Wildman, Kelly, & Laughlin, 1980; Kelly, Furman, Phillips, Hathorn, & Wilson, 1979; Kelly, Wildman, Urey, & Thurman, 1979; Meredith, Saxon, Doleys, & Kyzer, 1980) were reviewed and a survey was completed to yield a

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large number of deficit skill areas. A few examples of the types of skills identified through the review are: interacting with authority figures, participating in class discussions, participating in school activities, engaging in planned activities with peers, talking with parents about what is happening in the parents' lives, relating to peers, expressing opinions, trying to improve when criticized, and being able to verbally express thoughts. A number of specific skill components were also identified such as eye contact and body posture.

Once a list of skill deficiencies was compiled from the literature, mildly handicapped adolescents, their parents, and their teachers were surveyed to determine social problem areas as well as specific social skill deficiencies. Example skill deficiencies identified by these individuals included accepting negative feedback, negotiation, giving positive feedback, conversation, eye contact, and shaking hands with others. These social skills were consolidated with the list of social skills derived from the published literature.

This list of deficit areas was then clustered into related groups. For each related group of deficits, a social skill was identified. From this resulted a list of 30 general social skills that a person could use in amelio-rating al of the listed deficits. These 30 skills are:

- Accepting Compliments
- Accepting Criticism
- Accepting "No"
- Accepting Thanks
- Active Listening
- Answering Questions
- Apologizing
- Asking for Feedback
- Asking Questions
- Body Basics
- Conversation
- Following Instructions
- Getting Help
- Giving Compliments
- Giving Criticism
- Giving Help
- Giving Rationales
- Goodbye Skills
- Greeting
- Interrupting Correctly
- Introducing Yourself
- Joining Group Activities
- Making Friends
- Negotiation
- Persuasion
- Problem Solving
- Responding to Teasing
- Resisting Peer Pressure
- Saying Thanks
- Starting Activities With Others

For example, the skill of following instructions could be used to ameliorate such listed deficits as the inability to complete a series of instructions and the inability to complete an assigned task on time. Additionally, it seemed logical that some deficits require a number of social skills. For example, in learning how to interact appropriately with authority figures, a youth could use the social skills of following instructions, accepting criticism, negotiating, and giving negative feedback.

Once the 30 skills were identified, they were grouped into social skills clusters. For example, all of the skills related to giving and accepting feedback were grouped into the Feedback Cluster. These clusters form the structure for the content component of The Social Skills Curriculum.

After the skills had been clustered, a content validation process began. For this purpose, a panel of content judges was formed consisting of teachers of the mildly handicapped, experts in the field of the mildly handicapped, and experts in the field of social skills. Participants were given the list of skills and asked to rate the importance for mildly handicapped individuals of learning each skill, using seven-point Likert-type scales. They were also asked to rank order the skills. Additional irrelevant skills were included to assess the accuracy of the judges' ratings. The judges also were asked to rate the representativeness of the listed skills. Finally, the judges were asked to name any additional social skills not on the presented list but needed by mildly handicapped individuals. This process followed Goldfried and D'Zurilla's (1969) behavioral-analytic model. The results of the panel review showed that all the skills were rated as important or very important at least 50% of the time. The irrelevant skills were judged as unimportant or very unimportant more than 50% of the time. The skills that were most often ranked among the top ten of importance were: problem solving, resisting peer pressure, following instructions, accepting criticism, getting help, negotiating, making friends, asking questions, and answering questions.

Integrating the skills within areas of social interaction. Once the social skills content had been defined, the next step was to consider the situations in which the skills are to be used and how to integrate the skills into such situations during the teaching process. Effective social responses to particular situations can be taught (the Problem-specific Approach), or the general skills required in classes of social situations can be taught (the General-skills Approach). Using the Problem-specific Approach, the learner is taught to identify a problem social situation and perform an appropriate response for that particular problem situation. For example, if a person has difficulty accepting criticism from his mother, a sequence of behaviors may be developed for him to say and do when his mother criticizes him. Taken in its most restrictive form, the difficulty with this approach is that unique skill sequences must be developed for each problem situation. While this approach yields solutions to specific problems, it does not necessarily produce a generalizable social skills repertoire. Because there is an infinite number of social problems that an individual can potentially encounter, the use of this approach might mean that each potential problem situation would need to be considered separately and skills developed for each, producing an unworkably large curriculum.

The General-skills Approach, on the other hand, requires that the student learn the general skills that are required in certain classes of social situations. Applying the General-skills Approach to the example described above, the student would learn the general skill of accepting criticism, and then would apply this skill to related problem situations. Use of the General-skills Approach greatly reduces the number of social skills to be trained since the skills are divided into major skill areas as opposed to individual problem situations (e.g., the class of accepting criticism versus accepting criticism from your mother, accepting criticism from your boss accepting criticism from your teacher, etc.). Additionally, the skill may be more generalizable to novel problem situations because of the emphasis on their generality. This approach, however, may produce a problem if the learner is unable to recognize a particular situation that requires the use of a given skill or fails to generalize within a skill class.

The approach chosen for The Social Skills Curriculum integrates the two approaches described above by using a General-skills Approach tied to specific problem areas. That is, both general skills and their relationship to problem situations are taught. This method has the advantage of teaching generalizable skills while the learner is made aware of the type of situations in which the skills will be effective. Thus, for each general skill, the general characteristics of situations that require the use of the skill were determined. Based on these characteristics, problem situations generated by the parent, teacher, and youth surveys were matched to each skill.

Finally, the component steps of each skill were developed to enable a person to respond to the category of problem situations related to that skill.

For example, the skill of resisting peer pressure was developed to incorporate the nonverbal components (such as eye contact and body posture) and the general verbal components (such as a serious voice tone) necessary to communicate the content of the message. Then the verbal steps for the skill were outlined sequentially. They include such steps as (a) say "No," (b) give a reason, (c) suggest an alternative activity, and (d) leave if necessary. This collection of skill components comprises the general skill "resisting peer pressure." This process was followed for all 30 social skills and yielded the verbal and nonverbal skill components for each skill designed to cover a broad array of problem situations.

The teaching methods and sequence of activities. The Social Skills Curriculum was designed to include a variety of instructional methods to facilitate learning. These included breaking a complex behavior into smaller component parts, giving rationales, modeling the skill, providing positive reinforcement of successive approximations toward a final correct performance of the skill, providing corrective feedback about practice attempts, requiring practice to a mastery criterion, and using multiple exemplars of situations in which skills are practiced to facilitate generalization. Further, for practical reasons it was important that the curriculum be learner managed to as great an extent as possible, requiring a minimum amount of supervision from a teacher.

The instructional methods described above are interspersed through three kinds of sequenced activities: Awareness, Practice, and Application Activities. During the Awareness Phase, learners interact with written materials that consist of illustrated booklets and workbooks. The booklets illustrate a story or theme in which a group of young people are faced with a variety of problem situations, many of which require the use of social skills. The illustrated booklets are designed to stimulate high interest on the part of the learners and to provide a context or general rationale for learning particular social skills. Once the booklet has been read, the learner proceeds to completing the workbook. There is one workbook for each social skill. Each describes a particular skill to be learned, the reasons or rationales for learning the skill, the specific behaviors required for the skill, and the general characteristics of situations in which the skill may be appropriate, and it provides a demonstration of the appropriate use of the skill. The material in the illustrated booklet and the workbook is written at a fourth-grade reading level. Learners complete a workbook by reading the material and writing answers or examples in an answer booklet. For example, the learner may be required to select one answer among four as the correct answer to a question, or to give a new example of a specific situation in which a particular skill would be appropriate. Learners also practice writing the skill steps. Written practice is important because learners need to be able to instruct themselves on what to do next as they perform a skill, which requires that they know the steps of the skill perfectly (Alley & Deshler, 1979). Answers to workbook questions are checked by a teacher or another person. Learners are praised for correct work, and if necessary, required to go back and correct answers.

The Practice Phase of training consists of role-playing practice. Role-playing practice is important for skill mastery. Hazel et al. (1981) reported that youths who did not practice social skills to criteria were not able to use the skills in novel role-playing situations. Since learners are expected to use their newly-learned social skills in novel situations every day, it seems unlikely they will be able to do this unless they can use them in novel role-playing situations.

Role-playing practice in response to previously experienced and novel problem situations is done with a skilled peer (someone who has already met criteria on a particular skill). The peer participates in providing a model of the use of the skill, prompts the learner to perform each skill step, and provides praise and corrective feedback to the learner. Once the learner can perform the skill correctly with the peer in response to a novel problem situation, the learner engages in role-playing with a teacher or another person. Again, novel problem situations are employed until the learner meets criteria performance.

The third training phase is the Application Phase. Several activities are employed to help facilitate the generalized use of the newly trained skills. This seems necessary because Gorney-Krupsaw, Atwater, Powell, and Morris (1981) and Schumaker and Ellis (1982) showed that learners failed to generalize learned social skills to real-life situations following social skills training. One acitvity included in The Social Skills Curriculum is the Missions Game played by learners, teachers, and other people in the learning environment. In this game, learners who have been taught a particular skill are given a mission that instructs them to surprise another learner some time during the day with a situation that requires the use of that social skill. The situation must fit within the naturally occurring activities of the environment. Responses to the surprise situations are scored by the person presenting the situation. Points, translated into part of the class grade or exchangeable for rewards, are earned by the one person for presenting the situation and by the other person for appropriate behavior in response to the situation. Teachers and other people in the learning environment also participate by presenting surprise situations as well as by using naturally-occurring opportunities, such as when they give instructions, to score and reward learner preformance. Another Application activity involves the use of home notes to obtain feedback about whether a learner has used a social skill appropriately at home or in some other setting outside of the teaching situation. Of course, the use of home notes requires that someone at home (e.g., a parent) or in another setting (e.g., a work supervisor) is familiar with the steps involved in the social skill and is willing to participate. An additional Application activity requires that learners be given an assignment of watching a television program and of describing situations from the program where particular social skills should have been used or were used and what the consequences of the use or nonuse of the skills were.

Thus, The Social Skills Curriculum involves the use of self-instructional materials (the illustrated booklets and workbooks), modeling, role-playing, practice with a peer, criteria role-playing with a teacher or another person, and a series of application activities designed to help foster the use of social skills outside the learning situation. Although a teacher or another person is integrally involved in the curriculum, this involvement is primarily to monitor learners' mastery of each skill and to be a resource person with whom the learners can discuss difficulties and resolve problems.

CONCLUSION

The Social Skills Curriculum is designed to best meet the needs of mildly handicapped adolescents and young adults. It has a number of characteristics designed to provide the most optimal instruction. First, the social skills that form the content of the curriculum were identified and validated as common deficits for the mildly handicapped population. Second, these skills were integrated with specific problem situations identified through parent, teacher, and youth reports as common problems for the mildly handicapped. The component steps for each skill were identified to respond to these problem situations. Third, a number of teaching activities were incorporated to insure acquisition of the skills. These activities, sequenced into awareness, practice, and application activities, were designed to be maximally adaptable to a variety of teaching settings. If it is used properly, the curriculum should be effective in teaching persons the social skills that can help them be successful in their daily lives. The Social Skills Curriculum holds promise for effective instruction in a relatively under-addressed but much-needed area.

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Student Decision Making: Improving the School for All Students

Steven Brion-Meisels, Elisabeth Rendeiro, and Gwen Lowenheim

Recent emphasis on returning special needs students to mainstream settings focuses attention once again on two important questions. First, which core social skills do we seek to teach to all students, regardless of their specific special needs or special strengths? Second, what social skills do special needs students require for successful reintegration?

There is general agreement among educators, both in special and regular education settings, that all students need to learn basic language and math skills. Less agreement exists about the need for social skills education for adolescents (Feeney, 1980). This lack of agreement regarding curriculum has hampered our ability to develop strong school programs that can successfully meet the range of adolescent needs (Cooper, 1983; Feeney, 1980). The disagreement derives in part from the lack of a conceptual framework that can integrate social skill development throughout the school in curriculum, counseling, and behavior management.

For the past several years, we have worked with adolescents, parents, and educators to develop school-based programs designed to help improve social skills that can facilitate a return to public school and community settings. Our experience suggests first, that it is useful to think of decision making as a core skill which *all* students need to learn; second, that a focus on the developmental tasks of adolescence can provide a unifying theme for intervention; and third, that a focus on decision making as a core component of school practice is one way to help special needs students succeed in the mainstream. Our belief in the utility of a decision-making approach rests on a reading of relevant literature and on obsevations of adolescents in schools. We propose seven hypotheses about adolescents in school to guide our work:

1. All adolescents, regardless of their specific needs and skills, must deal with a common, core set of changes in their social relationships with parents, teachers, friends, and other peers (Jones, 1980).
2. The transitions of adolescence create a common set of issues which can be constructively integrated into the school program, and which must be confronted by school staff who seek to aid the development of adolescents (Cooper, 1983; Feeney, 1980).
3. The changes in relationships that characterize adolescence require that students make decisions and develop strategies for dealing with new problems; for example, conflicts with parents, peer pressure to use and abuse drugs, making and keeping stable friendships (Jones, 1980).

4. Successful decision making is facilitated by a core set of social skills which are identifiable and accessible to most adolescents: these include social perspective-taking, thinking about consequences and alternatives to social behaviors, and communication skills (Selman, 1980; Spivack, Platt, & Shure, 1976).

5. All schools need to improve the ways in which they integrate students who have special needs; a concentration on decision-making skills for all students can improve reintegration and benefit the whole school community.

6. Whole-school approaches to decision making can help a wide range of students to improve their social skills and interact responsibly with each other as members of a community (First & Mizell, 1980; Fox, 1973).

7. A focus on decision making is an effective *preventive* strategy for improving school programs and the school climate.

This paper will describe a model of decision making which has been used to develop a number of school-wide approaches for improving adolescents' social skills. We begin by reviewing some of the crucial issues of adolescence. We then describe our work with the Adolescent Issues Project. The third section of the paper outlines the core decision making skills which we have used to develop school programs. The fourth section describes a range of intervention strategies which use the core skills, including classroom curricula, counseling and discipline techniques, and parent education activities. We then present evaluation data which suggest the usefulness of the model, and describe some questions for further research in this area. Finally, we suggest some general guidelines for educators who want to develop decision-making programs.

TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE

Adolescents who are in special education programs may vary greatly from their peers in terms of academic performance, social skills, cognitive functioning, and motor skills. However, the vast majority of students between the ages of 12 and 16 all share a common set of experiences and face a common set of issues. Some of the issues faced by all adolescents are created by the onset of puberty. Physical and hormonal changes interact with changes in feelings and interests to create new social relationships with peers and adults. Adolescents begin to want to move away from family relationships into a more autonomous and interdependent definition of themselves in the context of new social groups. They begin to ask questions about their own competence as students, friends, and workers. They begin to question childhood values and ideas. They seek more interdependent and intimate relationships with peers, including dating and group relationships.

At the same time, they are thrust into new social contexts that are often confusing. Schools are larger; students may shift classmates and teachers with each bell. Adolescents become interested in working and making money; they confront their own skills and needs as well as the pain of a society without sufficient meaningful work opportunities for adults or adolescents.

Adolescents with learning or behavior problems must face these same issues. However, they often have not learned the social skills which facilitate the development of new social relationships. Therefore, they are often left out or kicked out; they have few friends, and their families often are under great stress themselves. Many adolescents experience a painful cycle; they lack skills for social success, and they lack the social opportunities to practice and improve social skills.

In this situation, schools must play a central role, both remedially and in preventing cycles of social failure. Yet educators often lack the time and training to develop a conceptual framework for integrating these issues into the fabric of school and classroom interactions. Therefore, the core issues of adolescence are too often ignored by the social institution which may be best equipped to help: the school. Consequently, schools for adolescents too often fail to meet the changing and unique needs of many students. Our ability to integrate the social and psychological issues of adolescence into school practice can transform the energy of adolescence, with its insistent questioning and searching for new values and experiences, into a powerfully constructive force to improve school climate for all students.

THE ADOLESCENT ISSUES PROJECT

One example of a school-based approach to the issues of adolescence has been our work at the Adolescent Issues Project. We are a group of educators and researchers who work with schools to develop decision making programs for adolescents. For the past three years, we have been funded through a Model Program grant from the U.S. Office of Education. We began in a substantially-separate special education program (the Manville School in Boston), and have expanded our work to include adolescents in a range of special and regular educational settings.

One product of our work is a series of five classroom curriculum units, ranging in length from 15 to 30 classroom hours (Brion-Meisels, Lowenheim, & Rendeiro, 1982). The five content areas of the curriculum focus on decisions about drug use, work, adolescent development and sexuality, juvenile law, and government. Each curriculum focuses on teaching a core set of social skills and strategies which are intended to improve the decision-making process, and are described in the next section of this paper. In addition, we have used this core set of social skills to help schools create and adapt programs for student government, counseling and discipline, parent involvement, and student assessment. Finally, we have explored research questions related to adolescent decisions, including the development of evaluation measures which can usefully describe changes in social skills and adaptation of developmental interview techniques to help educators improve school programs (Selman, Krupa, & Demorest, 1982).

At this point components of the program have been used in over 50 schools, with consistently positive evaluation from teachers, students, parents, and administrators. Evaluation data is provided in subsequent sections of this paper.

CORE SKILLS IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

From a review of relevant literature and our own work with adolescents, a core set of thinking skills have been identified which facilitate successful decision making (Brion-Meisels & Selman, August 1982; Selman, 1980; Spivack, Platt, & Sure, 1976). The five core skills are not exhaustive; however, they provide a helpful guide for understanding and improving the skills adolescents use in making personal decisions.

Social Perspective-Taking

As adolescents expand the breadth and intensity of their relationships with adults and peers, they are expected to take the perspective of many different people — individually (as in friendship or parent relations) and in groups (as

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in participation on teams, or in co-worker relations). For example, in dealing with friendship conflicts, it is important to be able to look at the conflict from the friend's point of view: to see his/her needs as well as one's own. In preparing for a job interview, it is crucial to look at oneself as a potential employer might, to evaluate appearance, skills, and motivation. The ability to take second-person and mutual perspectives is seen as a necessary though not sufficient social skill for successfully dealing with friendship and collaborative group experiences (Selman, 1980).

Alternative Thinking

The second core social skill is the ability to recognize options, choices, and alternative solutions to resolve a particular dilemma. For example, if a student feels unable to complete a classroom assignment, it is helpful to have more than one strategy to deal with this situation. The same is true of conflicts with friends, classmates, parents, employers, or co-workers; in each case, the awareness of, and ability to use, alternative strategies provides the adolescent with a flexible repertoire for solving the problem at hand (Spivack, Platt, & Shure, 1976).

Consequential Thinking

Many adolescents exacerbate their conflicts with peers and adults because they have not adequately anticipated the consequences of their behavior for themselves or for others involved in the situation (Spivack, Platt, & Shure, 1976). For example, an adolescent who impulsively quits a job after a conflict with his boss may not have thought through the consequences of this decision. If he can anticipate consequences, he may be motivated to think of alternative solutions which will adequately resolve the conflict without losing the job.

Communication Skills

Educators who work with adolescents speak painfully of how poor communication skills intensify or creat conflicts between teens and parents, teachers, and employers. For example, the adolescent who finds himself isolated from peers may have needs, ideas, and skills which he simply cannot communicate adequately; his response may be to withdraw or disrupt as a way of getting attention. The same is often true of adolescents who are school behavior problems or who drop out of school (Jones, 1980). Opportunities to practice and improve communication skills are often ignored in our quest for improving basic academic skills, especially in the individualized programs designed for special needs youth.

Evaluation Skills

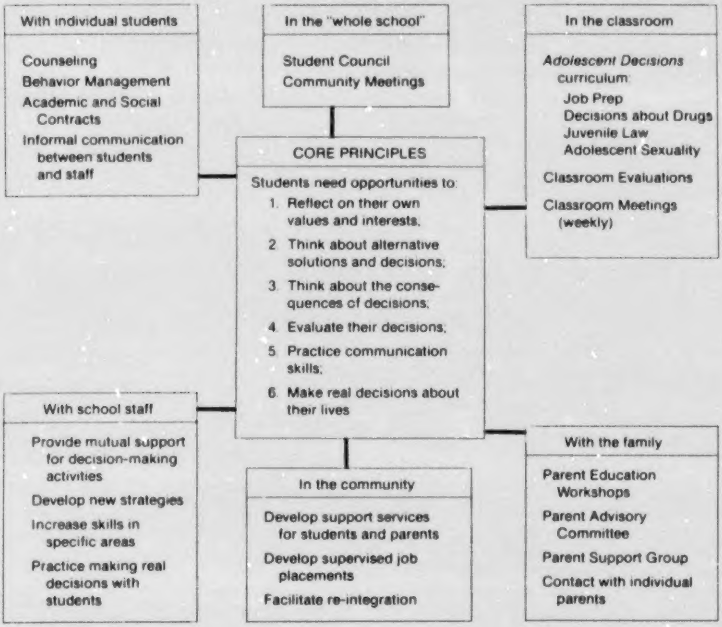
Constructive self-evaluation requires each of the four skills listed above. An accurate evaluation of personal needs, skills, values, and interests is helpful as an adolescent develops stable friendships, makes informed educational and vocational decisions, and establishes young adult relationships characterized by interdependence with family, peers, and the community. Tragically, *evaluation* has often meant *failure* for many adolescents; they are measured by what they cannot do, or by the problems they create (Brion-Meisels, 1979). Social psychological research (Rosenthal, 1966) and the anecdotal reports of educators corroborate the self-fulfilling prophecy that subsequently takes place: adolescents behave to conform to adult negative expectations (Jones, 1980). Lacking a positive social identity, they form a negative one because they have no alternative. The ability to evaluate oneself in a balanced, positive manner, taking into account needs as well as strengths and hopes as well as fears, is a crucial core skill in the decision-making process.

Decisions and Strategies

In our work, we have understood these five core skills to be crucial variables in affecting the *decisions* which adolescents made and the *strategies* they use to carry out their decisions. For example, an adolescent who has few friends, few positive relationships with teachers, and inadequate basic academic and vocational skills, may feel angry, depressed, helpless, and hopeless. He is faced with a *decision:* should I quit school or stick it out? This *decision* will be affected by his ability to take numerous perspectives on the problem, generate alternative solutions, anticipate consequences, talk with others, and accu-

TABLE 1
Decision Making as a Core Component of the School Program

Adolescent Issues Project, Manville School 1982



With individual students

- Counseling
- Behavior Management
- Academic and Social Contracts
- Informal communication between students and staff

In the "whole school"

- Student Council
- Community Meetings

In the classroom

- *Adolescent Decisions* curriculum:
  - Job Prep
  - Decisions about Drugs
  - Juvenile Law
  - Adolescent Sexuality
- Classroom Evaluations
- Classroom Meetings (weekly)

CORE PRINCIPLES

Students need opportunities to:

1. Reflect on their own values and interests;
2. Think about alternative solutions and decisions;
3. Think about the consequences of decisions;
4. Evaluate their decisions;
5. Practice communication skills;
6. Make real decisions about their lives

With school staff

- Provide mutual support for decision-making activities
- Develop new strategies
- Increase skills in specific areas
- Practice making real decisions with students

In the community

- Develop support services for students and parents
- Develop supervised job placements
- Facilitate re-integration

With the family

- Parent Education Workshops
- Parent Advisory Committee
- Parent Support Group
- Contact with individual parents

rately evaluate himself. Once the decision is made, he must then create strategies for dealing with the situation. For example, if he decides to stay in school, he must find new ways to get help, new school programs at which he might be successful; or he may try to combine work and school, using a work-study placement. The decisions and strategies he creates are affected by the five core skills described above.

Our work has used these five core skills, and the concepts of decisions and strategies, as a conceptual framework for helping schools develop a range of programs for adolescents (see Table 1). The next sections of this paper describe some examples of school programs which use a decision-making approach.

SCHOOL-BASED PROGRAMS USING A DECISION-MAKING APPROACH

Classroom Curriculum

A decision-making approach can be the formal focus for specific classroom curriculum, or it can be integrated into traditional academic courses. The five curriculum units developed by the Adolescent Issue Project are examples of the first approach (Brion-Meisels, Lowenheim, & Rendeiro, 1982. Our curriculum focuses on decisions and strategies, and provides daily practice in making decisions; it emphasizes case studies, role-plays, discussion, and group problem-solving tasks which develop the five core skills described above. From this perspective, factual information is integrated into the decision-making process rather than being taught in isolation from the interpersonal context. For example, information about the consequences of drug abuse is applied to the task of making personal decisions about drug use, or in helping to counsel a friend with a drug problem. The same is true of information about work, law, sexuality, and government.

A second curriculum strategy is to integrate the decision-making process into traditional academic curriculum. For example, we have helped teachers adapt vocational curricula so that they include tasks which require the five core social skills. These adaptations can be made for individualized curricula as well as for group lessons. Social studies and reading curricula also lend themselves well to the integration of activities which ask students to make decisions; for example, by taking the role of a character in a play, or of a person in an historical situation, or by discussing literature in the light of decisions. The social studies materials created by Fenton and colleagues (Fenton, 1976) and the *Facing History and Ourselves* curriculum (Strom & Parsons, 1982) are excellent examples of this approach, and can be adapted for use with a wide range of students.

Counseling and Discipline

Our work has suggested ways in which the five core skills can be used to help adolescents make decisions about difficult personal and interpersonal situations. For example, a counselor might use the core skills to structure an intervention to help students deal with a fight. In this case, the goal of the session would be to help both students see the problem from the other's perspective, generate alternative solutions to the problem, listen to each other, clarify each individual's behavior and its consequences, and agree upon a mutually acceptable solution. The same process might be used to encourage a student to accept responsibility for helping to create his own discipline consequences. The five core skills can provide a common focus for adult and student in both counseling and crisis situations, so that together they can create a plan to resolve the conflict.

The core skills also play an important preventive role. They provide a common vocabulary so that when problems arise, both student and adult have a repertoire of strategies which they share and have practiced together.

In each case, the five core skills help create a process which shifts responsibility and credit for behavioral problems and progress fro the adult to a more shared and interdependent adult-student responsibility. Students begin to take more positive, legitimate control over their own behavior; they both become and feel more competent to make decisions, and they have legitimate ways to exercise power. Adults being to feel less alone in their responsibility; they are free to focus more energy on helping rather than simply controlling students.

A decision-making approach can be integrated into a range of discipline systems which include an awareness of personal responsibility including behavioral contracts (Meisels, 1974), life-space models (Redl & Wineman, 1952), humanistic approaches (Jones, 1980; Wolfgang & Glickman, 1980), and reality-therapy programs (Glasser, 1965).

Student Governance

Classroom Meetings. In schools with a homeroom, a cluster, or self-contained classroom model, the classroom unit can be an effective group in which to make decisions. Classroom meeting activities have been used to help students evaluate their own behavior with a focus on: (a) strengths, needs, and progress; (b) planning and carrying out classroom activities; (c) discussion and decisions about classroom elective units; (d) resolution of group problems related to behavior or sharing classroom materials; and (e) discussion of issues which have come up in the course of a school day. The meetings provide a regular, predictable, and safe context for making decisions which affect student life, as well as a way to help students evaluate their own progress (Brion-Meisels, 1979).

Student Government. In schools which already have a student council (or similar representative body) the core skills can be used to focus meetings, to concretize plans, generate solutions, and evaluate the work of the student council. The five core skills facilitate group interaction and thus can help extend the social skills of members, for example, by facilitatng student leadership of student council meetings. In schools with a cluster system all students can meet in a community meeting to deal with common issues and make plans for the school or their group. In either case, the core skills can help shift responsibility from adults to students by providing a common vocabulary and set of expectations, as well as by offering students opportunities to practice making decisions which actually affect the quality of their school lives. In addition, an agreed-upon core set of social skills can help adults feel more comfortable in actually sharing responsibility and power with students.

Parent Involvement

Parents and schools can collaborate and become more effective by focusing on the common-ground decisions which adolescents face at home an in school. For example, both parents and educators must help adolescents deal with authority, respond to limits, negotiate new rights and responsibilities, get along with peers, share property and space, and work in groups to solve common problems. Monthly parent education meetings have been implemented with a focus on understanding the universal tasks of adolescence as a vehicle for generating solutions to common problems; e.g., discipline, drug use, sexual relations, personal hygiene. Using a common focus and vocabulary, parents of students who are in special and regular educational settings can come together to share common problems, collaborate on solutions, and work together to improve educational programs. The discovery of common ground among parents can facilitate the mainstreaming of special needs youth, because parents can help to break down stereotypes involved with special needs labels, and emphasize instead the common tasks of all adolescents and their parents.

Student Assessment

One of the most important tasks in successfully integrating special needs youth into regular school settings is a careful assessment of basic social skills. The framework of decisions, strategies, and the five core skills facilitates student assessment. Several assessment methods can be used. For example, short vignettes and case studies can be used in individual interviews and small group sessions to elicit important information about students' social skills. Case studies of "typical" adolescent dilemmas involving parents, teachers, friends, and employers can be presented to students. Responses can be analyzed to gather relevant social assessment data; for example:

- Does the student define interpersonal problems in individual or relational terms?
- How many different alternative solutions can the student generate?
- Are consequences of personal decisions anticipated accurately? Do they include consequences for others as well as the self?
- Are a student's strategies generally physical? Verbal? Do they seek mutual solutions?
- How well does the student evaluate his/her own social skills?

In turn, this information can be used to structure interventions aimed at improving social skills.

Members of the Adolescent Issues Project have developed measures and methods which use short case studies to analyze both the number and developmental sophistication of students' social skills (Selman, Krupa, & Demorest, 1982). Table 2 provides examples of case studies.

We have used these case studies in both individual and classroom sessions, and they have provided a useful guide for planning interventions. For example, many of the students who have participated in the program have been struggling to develop strategies which are reciprocal; that is, which take into account the needs of the other person involved in the situation. This assessment has led us to create case studies and activities which emphasize a second-person perspective on a problem. Responses from participants in staff development sessions has corroborated the usefulness of this kind of assessment procedure for helping them understand and improve their own interventions.

The same analysis can be helpful in evaluating intervention outcomes. For example, it is possible to analyze pre- and post-program interviews with students in terms of the number of alternative solutions they can generate, as well as in terms of the mutuality of the strategies they suggest for solving interpersonal dilemmas. This kind of information is an important adjunct to traditional achievement and behavioral measures of student progress. In addition, an evaluation which focuses on core social skills provides a com-

TABLE 2

Sample Case Studies to Elicit Decision-Making Skills and Negotiation Strategies

1. Susan works in a grocery store after school. She is only supposed to work for 10 hours each week, but her boss keeps asking her at the last minute to work late on Friday nights. Even though the boss pays her for the extra time, she doesn't like being asked to work late at the last minute.
    a. What would be a way for Susan to deal with her boss?
    b. Why do you think that is a good strategy?
    c. What might happen if Susan tried that strategy?
    d. Can you think of any other ways to deal with this situation?
2. Dan and his girlfriend are out on a date. Dan wants to start going out with other girls, but he's not sure his girlfriend will like that.

    (ask same questions as in Number 1)
3. Mark is a runner on the school track team. An important meet is coming up that the coach really wants to win. He asks Mark to take some drugs that will give him a better chance of winning. Mark doesn't want to take the drugs.

    (ask the same questions as above)
4. Amy's uncle drinks every day. She hates that and would like to get him to stop.

    (ask the same questions as above)
5. Bob works on a construction job with his friend Alex. Alex gets stuck with a job that is really hard, and he wants Bob to help him. Bob doesn't want to help with the job.

    (ask the same questions as above)

Adapted from Krupa, 1982.

mon vocabulary for staff and parents when they begin to discuss reintegration of special needs students.

Summary of School-Based Programs

The examples presented above are suggestive but not exhaustive of the programmatic applications of a decision-making model. In some cases, the decision-making framework can be used to supplement, formalize, or systematize existing interventions. In other cases this approach provides a new focus for schools which work with young adolescents. The program has been used in both ways by a range of special needs schools during the past three years. The next section provides evaluation data from the second-year replication of the program.

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EVALUATION

Replication Sites & Evaluation Measures

During the second year of our federal funding, the program was replicated at two different levels in a number of schools. Twelve special education programs field tested components of the curriculum; staff who taught the materials completed lesson evaluations and participated in several written and oral evaluation activities. The drug use and work curriculum were field tested by regular education classrooms. In addition, four special education sites replicated other components of the program; they worked with Project consultants to develop decision-making programs in student counseling, discipline, student government, and parent education. Therefore a total of seventeen schools were involved in second-year evaluation activities. Evaluation measures included the following:

- Pre- and post-program achievement tests on curriculum content;
- Pre- and post-program interviews with a sample of students to measure changes in the strategies used to resolve hypothetical case studies;
- Written and interview evaluations with school staff;
- Follow-up interviews with six students who completed the program during the first year of the Project;
- Interviews with parents at one replication site.

Evaluation Results

Since the primary goal of the Project has been to help schools develop decision-making programs to fit their own structure and needs, the replication evaluation was not standardized as to the exact implementation of the program. In other words, Project staff did not dictate the exact number, sequence, or length of the curriculum units used by any school; these decisions were left to the staff. Rather, the goals of evaluation were to describe program implementation at different sites, to seek areas for improvement of implementation, and to record relevant changes in students' skills, attitudes, and/or behavior (Krupa, 1982).

Information Gains

Small positive gains were reported at all sites that collected pre- and post-program curriculum achievement tests. Teachers who used the curriculum reported that test scores were probably affected by general deficits in test-taking skills. Student participants reported that they learned new information, especially about drugs and sexuality, and that they could use this information to help others. For example, one student said: "Kids should know this stuff. They listen to me now when I talk about drugs" (Brion-Meisels, 1983).

Behavior and Attitudinal Changes

Students who participated in the program reported that they felt differently about themselves, and changed some of their social behaviors:

> "I wouldn't have a job now without it."
> "The more I learned about drugs, the more I stayed away from them."
> "It helped me deal with different people. The jobs part helped me keep a job."
> "It taught you that you are not a failure."

> "It's good to have this because people should know about drugs so they can make good decisions" (Krupa, 1982, pp. 66-68).

Self Evaluation

Staff at the four sites which replicated several components of the program were interviewed extensively about the impact of the program on their own teaching and on the school climate generally. They consistently reported that the approach had helped them deal with difficult classroom issues even when the materials sometimes came in conflict with their own values. For example, one teacher told the evaluator, "The program improved my ability to verbalize and be creative with students around issues addressed by the Project" (Krupa, 1982, p. 31). A second teacher reported that the introduction of a parent group led to new teacher sensitivity to the needs and strengths of parents. An administrator wrote in her evaluation:

> Our students developed the capacity to participate in class discussions, learn through hypothetical situations and role-playing, apply structured steps of decision making, and verbalize value judgments.... In addition, our staff gained confidence and expertise in dealing with the difficult topics addressed by the program. The course has become a part of our educational program (Krupa, 1982, p. 36).

The evaluation interviews indicate a clear and uniform policy decision on the part of participating schools to include a decision-making approach to adolescent issues as a core component of their program in the future.

Parent Evaluation

Parents who participated in a year-long education group in one of the replication sites evaluated the program both individually and in a group session. They too were uniformly positive about the need for and effectiveness of a decision-making approach. Two responses suggest the focus for their evaluation:

> My daughter is almost more knowledgeable about some things than I am. She has accurate clinical knowledge.... I learned in the necessity of knowing, but she's learning in school.
>
> I know that my son feels very good about me coming (to the Parents' Group), that I am a part and that I'm interested in coming to school. Before he was a little scared at first; he didn't know what I was going to do with the information. But whenever I had to cancel, he would always say, 'What do you mean, you're not going? Why Mom? What's your reason?' (Linowitz, 1981)

Summary

Researchers and educators who have been involved in the assessment and evaluation of social skills are aware of the many limitations and caveats of the kind of evaluation data reported here. At this point it is difficult to separate out the individual program variables which produce positive changes in attitude and behavior. However, it is clear that the participants in the program verbalized a felt change in their own approach to the issues and that they found a decision-making framework to be effective and adaptable in their own school settings. Further evaluation and research is necessary in order to isolate specific program components which contribute to these changes, to measure the stability of reported changes, and to refine the implementation process so that it meets the needs of specific schools and communities.

At this point the results of our evaluation efforts strongly suggest the potential effectiveness of a decision-making approach in addressing some major concerns of schools serving young adolescents (Krupa, 1982). The next section of the article offers some guidelines for educators who are interested in implementing this kind of program.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION

Our work with a range of public, private, and collaborative schools suggests that several variables may affect the success of program implementation.

1. *Someone must be willing to begin the process.* Although the principles of decision making are fairly simple and straight-forward, implementing the program can be time-consuming work. The most difficult part of the process is getting started, taking the risks associated with a "new" program, learning new skills, asking new questions, and sharing decisions with students.
2. *Administrative support and leadership is crucial.* The new skills and activities associated with a decision-making approach (whether in the classroom, crisis management, or parent education) are, like any new skills, bound to create some discomfort and mistakes. Administrative staff need to lead by example, make their support clear, and provide opportunities for staff to practice new skills through in-service, team meetings, informal discussion, and modeling.
3. *Staff must carefully assess their own needs and skills, as well as those of their students.* The success of a decision-making approach often rests on the "first steps" which can establish positive decision-making experiences and demonstrate the usefulness and success of the approach. Careful assessment is essential. Staff need to be willing to explore their own concerns, and feel at ease asking for help from peers and/or supervisors. Staff also need to know where students are comfortable and competent in making decisions. Not all students can participate in representative student council, but all students *can* make *some* decisions (whether large or small) about their school life.
4. *Students need to be involved in the process.* Student involvement is especially crucial with adolescents. All students can and should be involved in identifying their own needs and interests, making decisions about classroom rules and consequences, offering constructive suggestions for classroom lessons and activities, etc. One crucial task for school staff is to identify the range of potential decision-making opportunities for students, and then involve them as early as possible in the first available opportunity for making decisions. Again, this involvement will be different for individual students and groups of students depending on developmental skills, and their special needs and strengths. However, the opportunity to practice decisions must be available to all.
5. *Parents must be informed and involved.* Parents can be powerful allies in a whole-school approach to decision making. Parents of special needs children are often painfully aware of their children's difficulties in making successful personal decisions. They have insights and experience which can be used by school staff; and they have the "other" 18 hours of the day in which to provide opportunities for practicing social skills. Our work strongly suggests that a positive parent-school alliance is a crucial factor in supporting the adolescent's attempts to learn how to make better decisions. We suspect this principle holds for all students and may be an even more powerful variable in

the lives of young children. Furthermore, decision-making skills are relevant to parents and teachable *by* parents.

CONCLUSION

This article has attempted to outline an approach to decision making as a core component of school practice; e.g., a social skill which is seen as relevant and accessible to all students regardless of their special needs or skills. The program described is intended to address common developmental tasks of adolescents which involve transitions in their relationships with parents, teachers, employers, friends, and peers. The specific issues addressed are common to all adolescents; the skills, interests, and awareness which an adolescent brings to these issues may vary greatly depending on his/her intellectual and social development. However, the framework of core social skills, decisions, and strategies can facilitate finding a common ground. The core skills also can provide a common ground among a range of different school philosophies, teaching styles, and discipline systems, because the core skills can be addressed in a range of specific school activities (classroom, student government, counseling, or parent education).

The program has been successful in helping adolescents with special educational needs improve their social skills. Furthermore, it has provided a common focus for staff and parents who share a number of concerns about the difficult transitions of adolescence. Our work suggests that this kind of approach, modified to fit the specific orientations and needs of individual students and schools, can facilitate mainstreaming of special needs adolescents and at the same time improve the climate of the school community for all of its members.

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The Importance of Play and Games in the Middle School Program for Emotionally Disturbed Young Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

The therapeutic utilization of play and games as a major curricular concentration offers potential for the enhancement of cognitive, social/emotional, and physical development of young emotionally disturbed adolescents. This theoretical stance is developed first through a description of the developmental concept of play and games. The theory is illustrated with examples from related literature, the clinical experience of the authors, and descriptive material drawn from a public school therapeutic middle school program. Illustrations included in this discussion are examples of potential learnings to be developed through play and games, types of play which can be used, and steps for preparing for play in the middle school curriculum. Although extensive examples are drawn from an operating middle school program, these are to make the theoretical stance concrete rather than to feature a particular program. Thus definitive evaluative statements about the results of the emphasis of play and games in this particular program are not made. In addition, data evaluating the program have not been collected to isolate particular aspects of the curricula. Impressionistic experiences, substantiated by outside observers of the program, indicate that the role of play and games in this curriculum are important determinants for student growth. Suggested steps for incorporating systematic evaluative data in this and other situations are included.

What Is Play and How Does It Evolve Developmentally?

Play can be defined as a complex process involving social, cognitive, emotional, and physical elements. The process involves voluntarily relating to an aspect of reality as not serious or real. This characterization makes it possible for the child or adolescent to handle issues that might otherwise be confusing, frightening, mysterious, irrelevant, risky, or forbidden. In this manner the child/adolescent evolves competencies and defenses. The process has a developmental sequence from infancy through adolescence/adulthood (Erikson, 1972; Garvey, 1977).

The normal developmental continuum of play beings with the sensorimotor experimentation of the infant (Piaget, 1962). Infants play zestfully through experimental body movements and vocalizations. As the infant matures, he involves others in his play and the first games of childhood emerge in such activities as Peek-a-Boo. Toddlers demonstrate their growing mastery of the world through the symbolic incorporation of small toys in play (Erikson, 1963). Preschool children begin to interact cooperatively with peers and a dominant character of play at this period is dramatic play (Peller, 1971), the playing out of real life themes through characterizations such as prominent television heroes, story book figures, and family experiences. At this stage young children continue to utilize sensorimotor play with increased gross and fine motor competence (Hartley, Frank, & Goldenson, 1952). Additionally, preschoolers show increased interest and capacity to create and solve constructive activities such as art projects, puzzles, and small block constructions. As the early years merge into the schoolage years, young children show their budding capacity to deal with the real world of work in the quality of their play, which becomes less overtly fanciful and more orderly (Erikson, 1963). Dramatic play becomes formalized drama and music; art emerges as a product and simple games become more complex. As defined by Piaget (1962, p. 144) the qualities which mark games with rules are competition, regulations by code, tradition, or temporary agreement among individuals The cognitive complexity of the games of childhood varies. The predominant mode of games may be *sensorimotor*, as in hopscotch; or the mode may be *intellectual*, as in chess; or the mode may involve *collective symbolic action*, as in war games.

From this point in childhood through adolescence and into adulthood, games with rules characterize the leisure and recreational pursuits of socialized individuals (Piaget, 1962). Solitary pursuits allow more option for constructive and fantasy play pursuits. Of course, normal adults and children return upon occasion to earlier stages. Some children never progress through all stages. Research has identified and described some of these differences in play patterns of young handicapped children (Garwood, 1982). These differences depend on the nature of the handicapping condition, but overall play performance of young handicapped children indicates that they do not play well.

Play and Games in Adolescence

For the emotionally disturbed adolescent the stresses and strains of the period and the resolution of the issues of identity interact to influence the quality and character of the play and games which the adolescent effectively uses (Erikson, 1977). Adolescence is a critical period for youth who seek to retain the roots of childhood, yet face the need to move from dependency to independence, to gain freedom of choice, and to assume responsibility for self in a changing and conflicting world. Issues of attachment, autonomy, intimacy, sexuality, achievement, and identity must be addressed amidst biological change, cognitive growth, and in the context of the reciprocal change of the adolescent's social world of peers, family, and school (Hill, 1980). The way in which the emotionally disturbed adolescent solves these issues depends on the nature of the disturbance, the chronicity of the condition, context, and the severity of the condition. Emotionally disturbed adolescents, like their younger counterparts, frequently are nonplayers, joyless, frightened individuals (Powers, 1980). Some relate to the world through symbols and actions not immediately interpreted by the outside world; these actions may seem playlike or nonsensical to the observer, but in reality they are "dead serious" for the youth. Still others have not addressed the issues of adolescence and remain frozen developmentally at earlier childhood levels;

their play reflects this fixation (Freud, 1965). Teachers can observe adolescents at play and assess their adjustment (Ekstein, 1975, pp. 142-162). Therefore, play should be a core part of the curriculum in all its developmental manifestations.

The recommendations for the therapeutic use of play and games in the curriculum for young emotionally disturbed adolescents must be based on considerations of typical developmental issues as well as the nature of the disturbance and the child's needs (Powers, 1980). In the section which follows, a model program incorporating a wide variety of play opportunities in the curriculum is presented to make this theoretical perspective concrete. Illustrations are drawn from various points in the curriculum to develop examples of the breadth and strength of this approach to therapeutic programming for young emotionally disturbed adolescents. These approaches derive theoretical support from the developmental concept of play as defined and illustrated in an earlier portion of this article. The reader is referred to Schaefer (1976) and Schaefer & O'Connor (1983) for more complete discussions of developmental play theory and therapeutic techniques within the context of this theory.

A Therapeutic Day Treatment Program with Play As a Core Aspect of the Curriculum

The Niles Township Middle School Program is a public school treatment program for children and young adolescents with severe emotional and behavior problems. The major goal of the program is to provide a therapeutic milieu which will foster the emotional growth of each student, thereby enabling him to understand and accept himself, reach out to others, and to adapt to the many demands of society. A complete description of the operating principles and practices of this program is beyond the scope of this article.

There are currently 32 behaviorally disordered children between the ages of 10 and 14 in this middle school; 26 are boys and 6 are girls. Most have been in either behaviorally disordered or learning disabilities programs previously, some for many years. As reported in the psychiatric evaluations and case studies, many of the students have experienced serious emotional traumas, losses, separations, and changes in their lives. At the core of much of the severe behavioral dysfunctioning of the students is severe depression. Others have been diagnosed as borderline psychotic, pre-schizophrenic, or emotionally, developmentally delayed. These emotional difficulties have for many of them contributed to an inaccessibility to learning. Some of the students have not fallen behind academically, but their emotional problems have been expressed in behavior which is unacceptable in more traditional academic settings.

At the middle school the students are involved in an intensive therapeutic milieu program. The basic philosophies of the program are psychodynamic; that is, the goal is to understand and help the young adolescents work through the underlying causes for their problematic behavior and school performance. (cf., Chenney & Morse, 1980, pp. 295-300).

In order to reach the goals of emotional development, a variety of services have been provided: academic instruction, social work services, art therapy, physical education, and crisis intervention. A combination of any or all of the services may be utilized for a given child. Each of these components of the middle school has its unique function but some areas overlap. One of the major areas that overlap is the use of play and games in the broadest sense in the curriculum. From the perspective of the authors, play at the middle school

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is a crucial part of the curriculum. Thus, play and games in the middle school curriculum are not frivolous and are not viewed as a reward for positive academic behavior but as an opportunity to develop appropriate behavior. The ego of the normal young adolescent is in a state of disequilibrium (Erikson, 1968). On the one hand there is a desire to grow up and be treated as an adult. On the other, there is a strong regressive pull toward earlier stages of development. While this can be difficult for the adults around him, this regressive pull allows the young adolescent to rework and refine the earlier stages (cf., Blos, 1962). The normal young adolescent can find for himself with the aid of his peers those play and game activities that allow him to work through this task (Sklansky & Lichter, 1957). The disturbed young adolescent is a different story. Most of the students come to the program with an inability to experience pleasure as documented in case study reports. By definition this means they cannot play (Erikson, 1963). But given the upheaval of their developmental stage there is the unique opportunity to provide the environment which will facilitate their play development and lead to higher levels of social skills and academic performance. Play develops curiosity, and curiosity enhances the desire to learn (Bruner, 1972).

What Can Be Learned Through Play and Game Experiences?

Since play and games involve self-choice and structure, the young emotionally disturbed adolescent can experience success in these activities. He can choose an activity at his developmental level — checkers instead of chess, puppet play instead of creative drama, coloring book instead of painting. As he gains satisfaction in these pursuits and is encouraged by teacher or therapist to continue, he gains the courage to venture forward along the developmental continuum with ever more age-appropriate activities. This process occurs in a supportive environment where clear structures are communicated to all participants that individual needs vary. Teachers/therapists protect and support individuals and the integrity of the group. In order to function in this manner, the teacher/therapist must keep firmly in mind the developmental continuum of play and games. Additionally, teachers must be skilled observers and interpreters of the variety of symptom presentations. The play observation is similar to the clinical interview described by Greenspan (1982) in which the teacher/therapist is required to have familiarity with the usual, form action hypotheses, and incorporate personal reactions in the best interests of the young adolescent. This process requires frequent support from colleagues, administration, and consulting mental health professionals. The careful planning and documentation of play and the appropriate provision of challenge permit the adolescent the opportunity to increase his self-control, independence, and initiative. As beginning expriences with peers in simple competitive games involving luck or chance prove successful, he can tolerate the frustration involved in competitive activity. By helping another with a skill, he gains satisfaction and potential status. Thus both cooperation and competition can be learned.

In the affective arena, play and games promote the expression of pleasure, joy, satisfaction, and positive self-esteem. From the cognitive perspective, play and games facilitate decision-making, problem-solving, and verbal expressive skills. Play and games can encourage creativity, encouraging divergent responses, ideational fluency, spontaneity, flexibility, originality. In enhancement of the self, play and games can facilitate the development of a sense of humor, leadership, and exploration (Bruner, Jolly, & Sylva, 1976).

Types of Play Used at the Middle School

Play and games are an integral part of the curriculum, sometimes even more important than academic achievement. Students do not tire of play and games, even through a substantial portion of the day offers opportunity for such activity. This phenomenon is due in part to two factors: first, the presented variety of opportunities is extensive throughout the day; second, the play or game is chosen by the student (within the range of available alternatives at a given time). By definition, the student must actively choose to absorb himself in play or games. This voluntary choice distinguishes play and games in the therapeutic interests of the young adolescent from the teacher-made or determined playlike activity. Of course, there are periods or times when individuals choose nonplay; this phenomenon occurs in relation to their emotional state rather than necessarily a conscious choice for nonparticipation. Teachers intervene to encourage, but cannot force, require, or direct play by definition.

The special education teacher does not try to recreate the microcosm of the regular class where the youngsters have failed. Teachers use play as tension regulators, diagnostic evaluation tools, methods for developing social skills, group cohesiveness, and safe return to earlier stages of development.

Play as tension regulator: Free play scheduled before or after academic work which is particularly frustrating can serve to release pentup frustration in an appropriate manner. In one of the classes, the time is spent building with blocks, leggos, and erector sets. The results of this opportunity to play are the binding of anxiety, the channeling of impulses. Such constructive play can be done cooperatively or alone. Many children with severe problems of impulse control welcome the structure of the compulsively structured play activities. Other activities helpful in this regard are jigsaw puzzles and arcade computer games. In some cases, students have built large fortlike structures that remain in the classroom and serve as preservers of privacy, an important provision for adolescents.

Play as diagnostic indicator: Board games can serve well in this function; the teacher can observe how the student approaches rules and follows directions. How does the student handle competition, relationships with peers and adults, winning, losing? The information obtained can assist teachers in knowing how much to plan for the child academically. For example, can the child engage in a game of monopoly that must be continued for a week or more? If so, he may be ready to assume responsibility for term papers, home work, or other continuous academic tasks.

Observed in field situations, students may show other facets of their personalities. The timid, shy, withdrawn boy who is a fisherman may have the opportunity to demonstrate his water and boat proficiency and thereby be seen as more competent than his peers and teacher had realized.

Records of student progress are kept in anecdotal form by teachers and are shared formally in case conferences and informally through the supervisory and peer channels of communication. In addition, the emerging art project, block structure, or other play/game product can be preserved long enough for analysis. Other methods for recording or sharing diagnostic impressions would be possible, but are not currently in operation. The primary mode for the teacher in this setting is reflected hypothesis testing in the clinical sense that was described earlier. A complete discussion of the teacher's role in this diagnostic process is beyond the scope of this article.

Play as a method to develop group social skills and group cohesiveness: One quite successful example of group cohesion was the participation on a competitive basketball team. The team was open to all students in the school. Students were required to learn official rules and abide by team standards of good sportsmanship. In this enterprise no one, no matter how poorly he played, was excluded or scapegoated. Growth and pleasure were observed through the interscholastic season.

A second opportunity for the establishment of group cohesion occurred in the park district team obstacle course, which requires the demonstration of trust and cooperation in order to successfully complete the course.

Simulation games for the academically more capable students have also been successfully incorporated in the curriculum. The benefits of the use of these games in education have been described in terms of permitting students opportunities to suspend school regulations, experiment with new roles and ideas. As well, teachers are freed from traditional roles of being arbiter of right answers and the truth. Students have attention on the game due to high active involvement. Chance and skill and student control are important features of these games. Such games offer opportunities for students with a wide range of skills to participate successfully (Coleman, 1971).

Play as a means to return to earlier stage of development: This year students have volunteered to go to the early childhood classrooms to play with the young children. Through such activities as water play, painting, sand play, and building with small blocks, the adolescents will have the opportunity to play at the earlier level of development with the socially acceptable proviso of helping the younger children.

What Is Involved in Preparing for Play in the Middle School Curriculum?

First, it is important to mantain a firm notion of the developmental sequence of play, for as described earlier, emotionally disturbed young adolescents are not usually good players (Huber, 1980). Their play follows the trends of normal with specific deviations based on the nature of their disturbance. Their lives do not often permit play: they cannot sustain the necessary attention to concentrate on play activities, they need to play through the same themes of earlier years for security's sake, they must strike out at the world before it strikes them, they fear the demonstration of their competencies since more may then be expected of them, etc. (Powers, 1980). For all these reasons, the quality of the play of emotionally disturbed adolescents is not typical. That is, they are not seen typically as involved successfully in competitive sports, as winners of arcade games, as skilled artists, or seen to exhibit much joy.

Through the skillful provision of play opportunities at various levels in the developmental continuum, teachers can offer chances for success and improved play for the young emotionally disturbed adolescent. Some general guidelines to follow include:

- Provision of sufficient time for students to engage in sustained, meaningful play. With 5 minutes left after finishing work, there is not enough time to start to play a game; periods must be of 20-30 minutes duration at a minimum, preferably of 45 minutes to 1 hour.
- Setting of parameters for the use of props and materials. Student choice of activity does not need to be free-for-all. Limits for number and kinds of activities to be conducted at particular dates and times can and should be specified.
- Sensitive intervention in and support of play and games, as they occur in the classroom. Teachers must be observant of student needs for assistance, prevention of explosions, etc. Playtime is not a time for teacher coffee breaks, marking papers, etc. Teachers who observe and interact as

called for, communicate to the young adolescents that play time is important and worthy of their attention.

- Provision of student choice of activity with a range of appropriate limits for the group. Since play serves the need of the student best if he chooses what and how to play, a range of materials and situations must be available to facilitate the needs of the entire group. Opportunities for games of chance and skill at various levels should be included.
- Opportunities for individuals to select, to involve themselves with others, or to engage in solitary pursuits. Forced participation in group activity or games is not play. The voluntary control element is lost in those contrived and teacher-directed situations. Opportunities for choice of when and how to participate in group interaction must be offered for the child who is exploring his capacity for social interaction.
- Support for those making their first attempts at meaningful social play. Through careful observation the teacher can assist as a bridge to social interaction for the child who is learning to relate to others through play or ask a more able peer to assist in these first attempts at social interaction.
- Provision of activities/props to stimulate both boys and girls, youth from all socioeconomic levels and with a wide range of abilities. Research with younger children and in other countries indicates that the nature and kind of play differs with age, culture, sex role identity, and social class (cf., Bruner, Jolly, & Sylva, 1976). Play at the middle school must meet the appropriate diversity of the group.
- Opportunities for the expression of the multidimensional aspects of play — socioemotional, cognitive, physical — which will afford chances for success for the divergent group.

In these situations the role of the teacher is unobtrusive, not to be equated with benign neglect. The smooth functioning classroom at play can be deceiving, allowing for some confusion, mess, and noise. The casual observer who sees a smooth, even operation may think "nothing's wrong with these kids," when, in fact, the teacher has utilized mighty creative and physical energy to create this smooth appearance. She has managed to challenge, channel, and choreograph youth who act out, retreat, and generally demonstrate immaturity. These kids are playing . . . darts, Uno, chess, Monopoly . . . with concentration and enthusiasm.

IMPRESSIONISTIC INDICATIONS OF PROGRAM SUCCESS

Since extensive examples have been drawn for the theoretical argument of the importance of play and games in curricula for the emotionally disturbed young adolescent from a particular middle school program, some indicators of program success are offered. In the 4 years that the program has been operating, approximately 25 students have graduated. The bulk of those graduating have been placed in a special off-campus high school program for half a day, with individualized alternatives of mainstream, vocational placement, or other alternative planned. Clinical experiences with these youngsters is reported by supervisory/consultative personnel at the high school. The graduates of this program, in contrast to those from a more traditional self-contained special education approach, are found to be more ready to accept supportive help and know how to ask for it. Students from the therapeutic middle school program form more in-depth relationshps. In general, the adjustment of these students is reported to be sufficiently even enough that in contact with peers in regular education situations, they do not stand out as different or deviant.

More immediate indicators of current success include the replicated observations of program staff which indicates that play growth is parallel to academic growth. Students tend to approach academic tasks quantificatively differently; that is, with more willingness to risk failure, to explore the difficult. A brief illustration is the case of one youngster who began playing checkers and simple challenge games with a therapist. Initially, he cheated frequently. When the therapist reflected cheating by engaging in the behavior herself — rather than continuing to discuss the appropriateness of the behavior — the contest or game between the two became one of becoming a proficient cheater. As the therapeutic insight came to the young man, he no longer found it necessary to cheat and began to enjoy intellectually more challenging games. Correspondingly, teachers reported that his performance in academic situations improved as well.

Some children enter the program as relatively strong successes academically, only a year or so behind grade level. Frequently these young adolescents are nonplayers in the sense that their behavior in play situations is repetitive and purposeless or socially isolating. As such youngsters are able to engage in short meaningful play or game episodes with peers or teachers/therapists, they make corresponding gains beyond the comprehension level of academic activity that is at the level of analysis, synthesis.

SUGGESTED NEXT STEPS

For this program to be effectively evaluated, more systematic records of play and game activity must be kept for curricular evaluation purposes. Details of academic achievement, progress in family or individual counseling, and other program aspects must be compared. Documents recording clincical progress could be analyzed. In this way support for this particular approach may be offered through the naturalistic case study analysis of an operating program. In the meantime the authors hope others will continue to try the approach with suitable modifications for the degree of mainstream contact sustained by program participants. As with other descriptions of the therapeutic use of games (Nickerson & O'Laughlin, 1983), no concrete or hard and fast evidence can be offered for this approach in operation, but clinical judgment which occurs daily, weekly, and annually in the multidisciplinary interchange among staff indicates that play and games are effectively utilized by program participants and that change or learning occurs: cognitively, physically, and in the social/emotional sphere.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this article play and games have been viewed as an integral part of the curriculum for emotionally disturbed young adolescents. The need for careful assessment of developmental level through clinical observation and as reflected in play and academic performance was highlighted. Opportunities through the day to build on strengths and to permit each youth to try newly acquired competencies in play and game situations require choices which range from Bombardment, on the gym floor, to board games; simulation games; creative drama; art therapy; horse back riding and swimming; Atari; ping-pong; cards; construction activities with leggos and large blocks. In each of these situations the teacher or therapist must carefully monitor and structure the environment to permit maximum freedom and support for the players. Structuring and monitoring are possible through awareness of developmental levels, and systematic utilization of clinical observation and interview techniques. Nonplayers should be encouraged and enticed into attempts to play and should be supported through those beginning steps.

Through play the emotionally disturbed youth gains important skills which translate to better adjustment: self-confidence, frustration tolerance, security, good sportsmanship, loyalty, capacity to compete. Play and games provide a common experience and language for teachers and students. A neutral ground is established which avoids the negative connotation of the previous school experience. The teachers communicate an acceptance of the child as he is through their participation in and structuring of play situations.

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Generic Affective Competencies: A Model for Teaching Socially and Emotionally Disturbed Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

Secondary level students who exhibit social or emotional adjustment difficulties, or affective disturbance, can prove taxing and problematic for teachers in both special and regular class settings. As a result, teachers need a range of competencies for managing the learning and behavior of students characterized by affective needs. Described in this report are a set of interrelated teaching competencies addressed towards affective-domain behaviors. Thus, the focus of the present report encompasses generic affective competencies. These are purported to be a common bond between special and regular classroom teachers, and of special importance for teachers of socially and emotionally disturbed adolescents.

Any number of different social or emotional adjustment difficulties may prevent students from achieving their full educational potential. A student's feelings, beliefs, and behaviors are critical variables in the learning process.

Youngsters characterized by any of the classifications of learning handicaps (TEA, 1979) are especially vulnerable to situations and experiences that precipitate social and emotional conflicts and that inhibit learning. The more frequently, chronically, and intensely (Pattavina & Gotts, 1979) a youngster's affective-functioning conflicts with learning, the more likely it is that a youngster will subsequently become further characterized by academic retardation, limited intellectual development, and inadequately prepared for adult adjustment (Bruner, 1971; Gallagher & Harris, 1976; Morse, 1977, 1979; Robins, 1966; Schafer & Polk, 1967).

Preparing individuals to manage adolescents who exhibit serious social and emotional adjustment difficulties remains an issue of concern for teacher trainers. With the current prospect of more handicapped students being integrated into regular classrooms, it seems likely that secondary level educators will need to be making instructional and management decisions about a

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more diversified, or heterogenous, population of adolescents.

To the question, "What are the competencies required to work with children who are mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or visually handicapped?", for a long period, the response from the field of special education was categorical in nature, as evidenced in teacher training and state licensing arrangements, as well as the ways that services were made available to children in public school.

The issue of generic competencies has come to the foreground as varieties of appropriate instructional arrangements have emerged in accordance with federal and state regulations and policies. When resource and helping teacher arrangements became used in lieu of self-contained and categorically homogenous classes, teachers were expected to function cross-categorically to meet the needs of children with a variety of diagnoses. The current emphasis on least restrictive environment has moved a similar responsibility partially back into the mainstream and to the regular classroom teacher (Gotts, Pattavina, Goodman, & Rodriquez, 1978).

Described in this report are a set of teaching competencies addressed towards a student's affective domain behaviors, and the focus encompasses "generic affective competencies" (GAC) which appear to be a common bond between special and regular classroom teachers, and of special importance for teachers of socially and emotionally disturbed adolescents.

Generic Affective Competencies: A Common Bond

Generic affective competencies (Gotts et al., 1978; Pattavina, 1981; Pattavina & Ramirez, 1980) are interrelated teaching skills that seem important for educating secondary-aged youths who experience social or emotional adjustment difficulties. Three broad categories of affective teaching behaviors identified in the model are those required by any effective teacher who attempts to motivate, understand, involve, manage, and teach individuals who are vulnerable and problematic in educational settings. These are (a) establishing the affective climate of the class, (b) managing conflicts and crises, and (c) using positive classroom management practices.

The GAC model identifies how teachers can systematically attend to the needs of socially/emotionally disordered students through management, instructional, and relationship-oriented practices. Classroom teachers are understood in this regard to potentially impact the perception, felings, thinking patterns, and behavioral habits of vulnerable and problematic adolescents. The model proposes, in general, that learning opportunities with such youths are fostered continuously through interactions and relationships that generate effective disposition, communication, and reward (Morse, 1979; Thomas, 1978).

The specific GACs described in the following chart are those skills, knowledges, and attitudes which have seemed important for a teacher's successful dealing with affective domain behaviors of secondary level exceptional students. It may be that there is considerable commonality of these competencies with those required by any teacher to work effectively with the affective behaviors of secondary level students in general (Pattavina & Ramirez, 1980).

Generic Affective Competency Statements (n=41)

I. Creating Affective Climate

1. Use accepting rather than rejecting language
2. Focus on feelings and reflect them accurately

3. Plan for success by gearing expectations and activities to each student's level of achievement
4. Make use of students' interests to enhance the meaningfulness of activities
5. Involve students in creating limits and learning activities
6. Give clear, simple instructions, one at a time
7. Initiate contact with resistive students
8. Recognize and acknowledge student efforts
9. Give a student corrections without criticism

II. Managing Conflicts and Crises and the Classroom

10. Accept and recognize feelings accurately
11. Leave responsibility for resolution with the student
12. Communicate confidence in the student's ability to learn and grow
13. Invite, but do not force, communication with a student
14. Maintain a goal-oriented, problem-solving approach to conflict
15. Use or exploit conflict as an opportunity for student growth
16. Use I messages to convey feelings
17. Control personal impulses in order to choose a response which will deescalate the conflict
18. Disengage from arguments to avoid power struggles
19. Recognize areas of least effectiveness regarding the management of student conflicts
20. Model effective alternatives for students to cope with conflict
21. Admit mistakes to students
22. Convey calm confidence during conflict and do not blame
23. Establish contact with a student after conflict with them

III. Using Positive Classroom Management Practices

24. Structure the environment and activities to facilitate group learning
25. Use questions rather than statements to remind students of limits
26. Depersonalize rules
27. Monitor several activities simultaneously
28. Be enthusiastic regarding activities
29. Selectively ignore behaviors that are not overly disruptive
30. Offer alternatives rather than commands
31. Remind students of previous successes
32. Use humor to decontaminate stressful situations
33. Control behavior through proximity and nonverbal feedback
34. Avoid punitive, rejecting, and absolute responses
35. State expectations clearly and briefly
36. Give disciplinarian feedback to students in private to avoid a ripple effect
37. Enlist problem-solving rather than "pledges of good conduct"
38. Allow students to search for alternative to punishment
39. Reinterpret adult limits as protections
40. Leave responsibility for change with the student
41. Allow students to experience natural and logical consequences of behavior

These competency statements are the result of theoretical considerations reported in the professional literature, direct observation, and consensual validation surveys. Subsequent research activities being conducted or designed need to ultimately achieve an empirical validation of the competencies over a period of time.

Establishing Climate, Trust and Rapport

The climate of an instructional setting or classroom is best understood as a complex of variables surrounding relationships and interpersonal behavior. Such considerations have seemed especially important in the process of educating socially and emotionally problematic youths, given their proneness towards such things as self-doubt, poor self-concept, failure, conflict (Morse, 1977). Consequently, the manner in which teachers are able to generate adaptive feelings and behaviors among such students seems to be an issue of preemptive importance (Pattavina, 1973).

Competencies identified in the GAC model relative to climate, trust, and rapport focus upon three general concerns. These include (a) relationships and interactions, (b) self-cocept and self-esteem, and (c) motivation and reward. Several lines of support for these ideas found in the literature are presented in the following section.

Brendtro (1980) suggested that teacher-student relationships are important in the instructional process because they improve the chances for effective communication and learning, as well as improve the value of teacher reinforcements. In a similar way, others have urged that interpersonal qualities (Frank, 1979) and relationships (Morse, 1979) are more important variables than the technique one uses to influence an individual's social or emotional adjustment. Relatedly, in a review of reports concerning skills needed by teachers of the emotionally disturbed, it was concluded that tolerance for anxiety and violence (GAC #22), as well as personal qualities of energy and enthusiasm (GAC #28) were most important qualifications (Herr, 1974).

The significance of relationship variables to the process of instruction has also been established through research. An extensive number of studies concerning teacher-student relationships identified a range of ways that teacher expectations (GAC #3) can influence the learning achievement and behavior of different students (Brophy & Good, 1974). In a related way, it was found in another study that failing to curb the social rejection of handicapped students may lead to a range of other problems (Leyser & Gottleib, 1980).

Though individual teachers can be seen to vary widely in the way they relate to students, there appear to be a number of strategies that can be developed through training (Matarazzo, 1978). It is important to understand in this regard that affective messages are communicated verbally, nonverbally, and through verbal intonations (Izard, 1977). Verbalizations, facial expressions, and body language are three predominant ways that individuals communicate feelings, attitudes, and beliefs in ways that prove accepting versus rejection (i.e., GAC #1).

Brown (1975) described a range of considerations for teachers attempting to improve the classroom climate for learning. These stemmed from Roger's view that teachers need three basic qualities to create a sound learning environment: (a) realness or genuineness (GAC #16), (b) attitude of acceptance and trust (GAC #10), and (c) empathic and understanding (GAC #2). Similarly, affective teaching skills were reported elsewhere to fall in one of three general categories of functioning (Aspy & Roebuck, 1979) — empathy, congruence, and positive self-regard.

More recently, a construct model designed to examine affective teaching skills was reported to include four predominant modes by which a teacher could express empathy to students (Morgan, 1979). These modes were listed as (a) management of instruction (GAC #3), (b) organization of environment (GAC #24), (c) responding to feelings and emotional well-being (GAC #2, 4), and (d) interpersonal qualities.

Instructional factors fond to impinge upon classroom climate have been reported in two major research efforts (Moos, 1979; Solomon & Kendall, 1979). The major dimensions of classroom climate identified by Moos (1979) include relationship, management, and instruction. Also, two recent studies of student relationships described the beneficial influence of "cooperative goal-structuring" during some learning activities. In one, the interaction between handicapped and nonhandicapped students became more encouraging, supportive, and reinforcing as a result of this reinforcement procedure (Johnson et al., 1979). Similarly, there was an increase of positive interactions and interpersonal attraction between nonhandicapped and Down syndrome students when this procedure was used (Rynders et al., 1980).

In summary, the GAC model identifies three subclusters of competencies a teacher will use to establish classroom climate, trust, and rapport. These are developing communicative relationships, enhancing efficacy, or self-esteem, and promoting relevance, reward, and motivation to learn.

Managing Conflicts and Crises

The management of behavior in classrooms or instructional settings has been a concern for educators at all levels, though possibly of greatest concern in secondary schools (Gott et al., 1978). Two different subclusters of conflict management strategies are reflected in the GAC model. On one hand, there are proactive or preventative types of competencies best suited for "nipping conflicts in the bud." Secondly, there are competencies which seem necessary for responding effectively to unacceptable behavior. These address the goals of deescalating and/or exploiting conflict situations.

There are many ways one might respond to an adolescent's provocative, irresponsible, or maladaptive behaviors. Sometimes a response is the result of a mood; an attitude toward the student; a sense of threat, danger or loss of control; or a sense of nurturance towards another individual or group being effected by the identified problem student (Pattavina, 1980). These all reflect decisions about management which were prompted by an affective factor of the teacher.

Responses are sometimes based on theoretical or competency-based training. Management decisions in these instances can be stimulated predominantly by beliefs about the effectiveness or appropriateness of specific techniques or strategies. Teachers trained according to principles of operant conditioning, for example, might respond to classroom conflict differently from teachers trained to use psychodynamic procedures. In a recent study, regular and special education teachers were found to have significantly different preferences for strategies when responding to conflicts (Pattavina, 1982a).

Teachers have a limited number of options when one or more students are exhibiting inappropriate behavior. Long and Newman (1976) list these options as ignore, tolerate, prevent, and interfere. More specific strategies and techniques described in the professional literature include a range of surface management strategies (Long & Newman, 1976) and interaction styles, or control clusters (Fink et al., 1976).

Once the decision has been made (consciously or unconsciously) to interfere with ongoing misbehavior, the teacher's response(s) is likely to have a critical influence on further developments of the conflict situation. For this reason, the GAC model addresses the area of conflict management from a learning standpoint (GAC #15); and as an interactional, or transactional, process between the teacher and student(s). Ideally, a teacher's use of the different management strategies will vary in accordance with the developmental needs of individual students.

Directive strategies, for example, are used to exert an immediate influence on behavior. Such strategies (e.g., token reinforcement) may be highly appropriate for some students but not for others. Students who chronically exhibit severe behavior problems are more likely to benefit from directive rather than nondirective strategies (Balthazar & Stevens, 1975; Thomas, 1978). Sooner or later, however, such students should be handled with less directive strategies (e.g., GAC #25) in order to develop greater degrees of self-control.

It may be relatively easy to respond to conflict with anger or a desire to punish. It is important to keep in mind, however, that the problem existing between the teacher and student has optional ways of being resolved (GAC #14). It is the *problem* that needs to be the focal concern, not the reactive feelings of either student or teacher. In fact, reactive or impulsive feelings tend to inhibit the ability to think clearly or reason logically (Bruner, Goodnow, & Austin, 1956). Thus, by controlling impulsive reactions, the teacher has the opportunity to consider other response options (GAC #17). If we as educators expect students to control their impulsive behaviors, then we need to demonstrate such control ourselves (i.e., GACs #17, 20, 22).

Some management responses are intended only to accommodate a student, or help that student to get through a difficult situation. Students experiencing some type of emotional or social crisis, for example, may need to be situationally or immediately supported in order to complete a current activity or task. Similarly, when two students get into a fight, the conflict needs to be curtailed; reasoning and perceptions need to be clarified; and feelings need to be somehow resolved before the learning task or activity can be resumed and completed. These might also be seen as comparable to strategies described as "emotional first-aid on the spot" (Redl & Wineman, 1952).

Other responses and strategies are oriented towards a specific affective learning need exhibited by a student. Youths who exhibit chronic types of adjustment problems, for example, may be able to profit from an ensuing conflict situation by way a teacher's responses at that point in time (i.e., GAC #15). There may be no better time to teach a student accountability than at a time when the student is engaged in nonaccountability. Likewise, a student's values can be clarified during situations where optional choices can be made, each resulting in different consequences (GAC #30, 41). Such intervention practices might also be described as "clinical exploitation of life events" (Redl & Wineman, 1952).

Management responses will also differ in terms of which realm of student functioning is being addressed, and the degree to which affect is a consideration (Prawat, 1980). After observing irresponsible behavior, a teacher may determine that a student needs to feel better (GAC #2, 10) about himself/herself and act accordingly. A different teacher's perception might be that the student needs help with self-control, and thus might devise an appropriate intervention strategy (GAC #20). Still another interpretation of the behavior might be that the student needs instructional assistance, and consequently, the teacher tries to help the student achieve more successfully (GAC #3).

Each of these decisions about student needs will result in a different type of teacher behavior or intervention strategy.

In summary, the GAC model proposes that conflict management is best understood as a process of interpersonal behaviors. Because individual youths may respond differently to interventions, it seems important that strategies are based upon developmental assessments. In this way, it will be more likely that the respective goals of the teacher and student(s) will be effectively communicated. Such communication may be fostered best through reflective, emphatic, and problem-solving orientations during the initial course of conflict management. Subsequently, however, the interaction needs to address options, accountability, consequences, and purposeful decisions.

Using Positive Classroom Management Strategies

Positive classroom management strategies are suggested as ways of curbing the extent to which a student's affective difficulties interfere with learning. In addition, the proactive approaches identified in the GAC model are also likely to foster affective growth when practiced routinely.

Shavelson (1976) suggested that classroom management systems are the result of a decision-making process on the part of individual teachers. Relatedly, Gotts (1974) identified a range of classroom management decisions which special education teachers may need to address. These decisions concern (a) what to teach, (b) sequencing of objectives, (c) apropriate teaching methods, (d) materials, (e) behavior management, (f) organization of time, (g) student groupings, (h) physical organization of space, (i) how and what to evaluate, and (j) how to use resources.

In a similar way, Hewett and Forness (1977) identified critical teaching considerations in terms of three broad variables. These included the physical and affective environment, curriculum and instruction, and individual reward structure systems that stimulate and reinforce learning and adjustment.

While the GAC model is probably unable to address each of the classroom management concerns presented here in a comprehensive way, the competencies do focus directly upon the enlistment and maintenance of adaptive learning behaviors among students. As such, the model identifies the need for a classroom's structure (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974) to vary in accordance with individual student needs. The competencies identified in the GAC model seem broad enough to prove applicable across various classroom structures. Moreover, some of the competencies presented in the model assume a networking effect, whereby there competencies become implied.

For example, with the advent of IEPs for learning handicapped students, teachers need to deviate from traditional group instruction. It may, thereby, become important for a teacher to monitor several activities simultaneously (GAC #27). Relatedly, this kind of skill seems comparable to the trait of 'withitness," suggested to allow potential problems to be "nipped in the bud" (Kounin & Obradovic, 1976). In a networking fashion, one would also need to be adept at grouping (GAC #24), material selection and preparation, monitoring and feedback, and assessment of individual needs (GAC #3).

Managing transitions from one activity to another has proved to be a concern for teachers at all grade levels, since the process of changing activities can precipitate a number of different social or emotional conflicts (Spivack & Swift, 1975). Many disturbed and maladjusted youth may have limited or distorted concepts of time (Reich, 1969); therefore, a teacher may need to establish routines, remind students prior to the end or beginning of new activities, or inform them of the exact or approximate amount of time that activities will last. An affective goal of such strategies is to allow students a sense of predictability about scheduled events. Some students may also need to prepare themselves for situations they find stressful.

A major area of teacher decision making influencing the climate and the behavioral adjustment of students is the process of instruction (Thomas, 1978). An important way that teachers can enhance the supportiveness of the classroom climate is by fostering academic success (GAC #3) (Glasser, 1969). While it is impossible to establish a causative relationship between self-concept of esteem and academic success (Scheirer & Kraut, 1979), it will nonetheless be important for teachers to manage the amounts and kinds of stresses which handicapped students experience during learning activities. Academic failure has been associated with irresponsible behavior (Bower & Lambert, 1971) and lowered self-esteem (Thomas, 1978) in an extensive number of studies.

Teachers need to address the question of how individual students are best able to achieve different learning objectives (GAC #3). This may require modifications of curriculum content, controlling the type of degree of intellectual skills needed to perform a task, designing novel instructional materials, or varying the instructional strategies used to generate and sustain attention (GAC #4, 6). Issues of teaching concern in this regard include stimulus intensity (Zeaman & House, 1963), linguistic complexity (Cherkes, 1975), content relevance (Schafer & Polk, 1967), clarity (Klausmeier, Ghatala, & Frier, 1974), and satiation effects (Cofer & Apley, 1964). Relatedly, the format in which instruction is presented can influence subsequent cognitive activity, affective reactions, and social behavior (Bruner et al., 1956; Bruner, 1966; Cawley, Goodstein, & Burrow, 1972; Pattavina, 1973).

In some classrooms, a teacher is able to design learning activities addressed primarily to affective, or social-emotional objectives. Any number of different affective learning objectives may be deemed as necessary or beneficial for an individual or group of students (Berkovitz, 1978). Examples of affective instructional procedures and strategies reported in the literature include (a) teaching self-concept (Hamilton, Flemming, & Hicks, 1976; Howe & Howe, 1975); (b) improving social status (Leyser & Gottlieb, 1980); (c) promoting group interaction and acceptance (Johnson et al., 1979; Rynders et al., 1980); (d) teaching ethical and altruistic concerns (Kobak, 1979); (e) enhancing accountability and self-regulation (Hoover, 1978; Thomas, 1978); (f) improving race relations (Slavin & Madden, 1979); (g) developing self-control (Fagan & Long, 1979; Goodwin & Mahoney, 1975; Pressley, 1979); and (h) developing moral-reasoning (Muson, 1979).

In other instances, a teacher can focus on "enabling" affective objectives, thereby increasing the student's chances of succeeding academically, and receiving positive reinforcement for adaptive behavior (Hops & Cobb, 1972). It is the student's developmental level which determines what the affective objectives will need to be like.

Other competencies included under positive classroom management practices concern the ongoing or systematic management of student behavior. Again, some of the skills identified in this competency cluster are also appropriate for both managing conflicts and establishing climate. Teachers are advised, for example, to express enthusiasm about activities during the course of instruction (GAC #28) in order to enhance student motivation or interest. Some of the reasons for inhibited student motivation may include the time of day, the nature of activity, or prior events. At times like these, a teacher's expression of feelings can affect student behavior in critical ways. If a teacher expresses apathy or tedium, as opposed to enthusiasm, student behavior may likely follow the principles of contagion (Redl & Wineman, 1952).

Reminding students of previous successes (GAC #31) can help to activate participation. For the sake of motivation and self-esteem, it will be important that learnig handicapped students maintain awareness of capabilities and strengths. When faced with new or difficult situations and learning activities, some students may find it more comfortable to "lay down and play dead." Students will need to be coached and supported during these kinds of experiences. For example, "Remember how well you did (named activity)?"

At other times, when a teacher senses tension with an individual or group of students, it may sometimes be helpful to lighten the mood (GAC #32). Tension and stress are associated with anxiety, and learning hinges critically on the amount of anxiety being experienced. Laughter and humor have a way of relieving tension in individuals, and can change the course of what otherwise might be a disruptive situation.

Many behaviors can be managed through proximity and nonverbal feedback (GAC #33). In fact, it is totally unnecessary for every misbehavior and emergent act of defiance to be verbally proclaimed in public (GAC #29). Often, situations can be controlled by the way you look at a student, or by standing next to an individual or group. This does not require the teacher to interrupt instruction and does not force other students to stop what they are doing to attend to the misbehavior. Fink et al. (1976) described this as a *neutral facilitator* strategy.

To summarize, effective classroom management practices can be seen to involve a range of interrelated teaching competencies, all of which are needed for establishing a learning environment that is responsive to the needs of individual students. Three major clusters of responsibility will include variables of the physical and affective environment, curriculum and instruction, and individual reward-structure systems that stimulate and reinforce learning and adjustment (Hewett & Forness, 1977). As the learning needs of students become more diverse or extensive, there will be a need for greater control of these classroom management variables. In other words, the instructional process may need to become more structured or directive in relation to the severity of an individual student's affective learning difficulties.

SUMMARY

Secondary level students who exhibit social or emotional adjustment difficulties can prove taxing to teachers in either regular or special class settings. Teachers need a range of competencies in order for learning handicapped students to be able to achieve and adapt successfully. *Specialized* teaching competencies have been reported for persons working with specific populations of students. Presumably, there are special competencies needed for teaching students who are ED, that differ from those competencies needed for teaching students who are LD, MR, physically handicapped, etc. This notion has also been reflected in teacher training programs and certification standards.

The recent movement in some states towards generic teaching certificates is based partly on the assumption that different learning handicaps are frequently overlapping. It's not uncommon to find that some ED students will also exhibit specific learning disabilities and vice versa. The same is true for individuals who are MR or physically handicapped.

A set of interrelated teaching behaviors, described as *generic affective competencies* are described in this report as having importance for meeting the affective learning needs of handicapped adolescents. The GAC model incorporates three major clusters of teaching competencies: (a) establishing climate, trust and rapport, (b) managing conflicts and crises, and (c) using positive classroom management practices.

The generic affective competencies are an outgrowth of observed teaching behavior, theoretical considerations, and consensual validation research. In formulating the list of statements, the authors drew from psychodynamic, developmental, and behavioral theories of learning. The skills in part assume a broad conceptual basis in mediational learning theory, as opposed to simple associative or reinforcement theory. As such, children and adolescents are viewed as mediating individuals who are continually acting and reacting, not only to external events round them, but also to internal phenomena and information processing capacities that develop with age, exposure, and teaching in a systematically spiraling fashion.

The competency-based model of teaching presented in this report is significant to the extent that corroborative findings are able to be generated through empirical study. Subsequent research activities being conducted or designed need to ultimately achieve validation of the competencies over time and setting variables. Broad questions remaining problematic concern the value of the competencies for promoting child change, and the extent to which these affective competencies can be developed by individual teachers through (pre- or in-service) training.

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